DEMANDING INSTRUCTIONAL LEADERSHIP: INDIANA HIGH SCHOOL ASSISTANT PRINCIPALS IMPLEMENTING HIGH-STAKES TEACHER EVALUATIONS

Brian R. Disney

Submitted to the faculty of the School of Education

in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree

Doctor of Education

in the Department of Educational Leadership and Policy Studies,

Indiana University

February 2015

Accepted by the School of Education Faculty, Indiana University,

in partial fulfillment of the requirements

for the degree of

Doctor of Education

Doctoral Committee

Gary M. Crow, Ph.D.

Ginette Delandshere, Ph.D.

Cassandra Guarino, Ph.D.

November 14, 2014

Acknowledgements

I would like to begin by thanking my research committee for their support, encouragement, and contributions to my growth and to this research project: Dr. Ginette Delandshere, Dr. Cassandra Guarino, and my committee chair, Dr. Gary Crow. Each of you has provided an area of expertise and critical feedback that has improved and enhanced this project. I am especially indebted to Dr. Crow for his ongoing support and timely feedback throughout this process. I would also like to thank my other professors from the Educational Leadership and Policy Studies department who challenged and encouraged me throughout my coursework: Dr. Suzanne Eckes, Dr. Barbara Erwin, Dr. Charles Little, Dr. Gerardo Lopez, Dr. Brendan Maxcy, Dr. Thu Suong Nguyen, and Dr. Samantha Paredes Scribner. Thank you for challenging me and helping me to grow as a researcher and as a practitioner!

I would also to thank my friends and colleagues who have supported me throughout this process. I must also express my gratitude to the 2009 cohort who grew with me through three years of coursework. Your contributions to my learning cannot be overstated. I am especially grateful to PJ Hamann and Clare Lutgen who have continued to support and encourage me throughout the dissertation process. Thank you!

I am grateful to the assistant principals who completed my survey and especially to the 6 assistant principals who participated in the interviews. You took time out of your busy schedules to share your experiences with me. Your stories brought meaning to my research and the important work of assistant principals and instructional leaders. For this, I am truly grateful.

Lastly, I must thank the most important people in my life: my family. My parents, Jim and Helen Disney, were my first teachers and I have tried to continue living as they taught me: love God first, work hard, care for others, and always do one's best. My sister, Angela Taylor, set the bar high with her many accomplishments. My wife and my daughter, Tracy and Kate, sacrificed a lot for this project. They deserve a great deal of gratitude for patiently supporting me while I worked on weekends and evenings. Their support and love are invaluable to me. I love you all!

Brian R. Disney

DEMANDING INSTRUCTIONAL LEADERSHIP:
INDIANA HIGH SCHOOL ASSISTANT PRINCIPALS
IMPLEMENTING HIGH-STAKES TEACHER EVALUATIONS

The work of assistant principals is essential for translating state laws into school practices. This study examined the impact of the implementation of Indiana's high-stakes educator evaluation law (PL-90) on the work of high school assistant principals. Specifically, this empirical investigation examined the impact of the implementation on their work related to the requirements of PL-90, traditional assistant principal roles and responsibilities, and their instructional leadership role. The study also explored the kinds of factors that enabled or constrained impacts of the implementation on their work.

This study employed a sequential explanatory mixed-methods research design. The quantitative phase consisted of a survey to examine Indiana high school assistant principals' perceived level of involvement in 40 leadership practices and actions. Assistant principals implementing PL-90 in 2012-13 who had been in the same position for at least two years were also asked to rate their perceived change in involvement in those leadership practices and actions. The qualitative phase was designed to explain and elaborate on the findings of the quantitative phase. A stratified sample of six assistant principals participated in two semi-structured interviews focused on the participants' experiences during the implementation.

Findings revealed that assistant principals reported significantly more involvement with instructional leadership, especially activities related to the requirements of PL-90. However, their responsibilities related to student and organizational management remained constant. Therefore, assistant principals reported a significant

increase in their workload and in the hours they worked to complete their assigned duties. Assistant principal adapted to the time constraints during the school day by changing student management procedures and by communicating with parents during afterschool hours. The kinds of factors that impacted the assistant principals' experiences of the implementation included the evaluation system, the administrative structure, and the assistant principal's years of experience as a teacher and as an administrator.

Recommendations for assistant principals focused on becoming active partners in restructuring their instructional leadership role. Recommendations for building, district, and state leaders included providing support and resources to successfully implement high-stakes educator evaluations. Implications for research focused on the instructional leadership role of assistant principals and its impact on school outcomes.

Gary M. Crow, Ph.D.

Ginette Delandshere, Ph.D.

Cassandra Guarino, Ph.D.

Table of Contents

List of Tables and Figures

Tables

Figures

Chapter 1: Introduction

The work of assistant principals is "critical for implementing state expectations (laws and policies) as they translate state requirements (e.g., minimum curriculum) into everyday regularities (student schedules and the master schedule)" (Marshall & Hooley, 2006, p. 51).

Reforming public schools has been popular among policymakers even though few reforms actually change school and classroom practices (Cuban, 1990; Tyack, 1991). Reforming schools through high-stakes accountability for educators is currently very popular among both Republicans and Democrats. This political climate is attempting to affect schools and school leadership. President George W. Bush's No Child Left Behind Act (NCLB) of 2001 placed pressure on schools in the United States to improve student achievement for all students across demographic backgrounds. In 2010, President Barack Obama's Race to the Top (RTT) program incentivized state level k-12 education reform including a focus on teacher effectiveness as one of the ways to improve student achievement and growth. RTT encouraged states to design and implement rigorous and fair evaluation systems for teachers and administrators that differentiate effectiveness into multiple categories (e.g. highly effective, effective, ineffective). Between 2008 and 2011, thirty-two states made changes to their teacher evaluation policies (National Council on Teacher Quality, 2011). Indiana became one of those states in 2011 when the state legislature passed Senate Enrolled Act 001 and Governor Mitch Daniels signed it into law as Public Law 90-2011 (PL-90). PL-90 is a comprehensive school law that includes language concerning: school corporation operational efficiency, revocation of teacher licenses, cancellation of teacher contracts, and annual certified staff performance

evaluations. When this law took effect on July 1, 2011, annual staff performance evaluations became the cornerstone of future school personnel and compensation decisions in Indiana.

School corporations and school personnel are grappling with how to implement these new high-stakes teacher evaluation laws that require annual evaluations of all certified staff members. The implementation of PL-90 will impact the work of Indiana building-level administrators (Whiteman, Shi, & Plucker, 2011) and the state's building-level administrator evaluations emphasize the prioritization of the management of teacher effectiveness (Indiana Department of Education, 2011). The staff performance evaluation component of PL-90 requires educators to be evaluated at least annually, meaning significantly more teacher evaluations must be completed at each school every year (Whiteman et al., 2011). Additionally, building-level administrators who are implementing high-stakes teacher evaluations in Tennessee have indicated that they are spending significantly more time on instructional leadership activities (Tennessee Department of Education, 2012). Since high school assistant principals have significantly greater involvement in student management than instructional leadership (Hausman, Nebeker, McCreary, & Donaldson Jr, 2002), their work may be greatly affected by the new high-stakes teacher evaluation law.

This study examined how PL-90 impacted the work of Indiana high school assistant principals. To understand the context of the implementation of PL-90 and the work of Indiana high school assistant principals, I will discuss the requirements of the law. Since the performance evaluation of teachers is a key component of the requirements, I will then provide an overview of scholarship on teacher evaluations. The

next section will focus on instructional leadership which describes how building-level administrators impact the performance of teachers. The final section of this introduction will preview the current literature on the work of assistant principals.

Indiana Public Law 90-2011

Two pillars of former Indiana Governor Mitch Daniels and former State Superintendent of Public Instruction Dr. Tony Bennett's legislative agenda for 2011 were evaluating and paying educators based upon performance and holding schools accountable for student learning (Whiteman et al., 2011). On April 30, 2011, Gov. Daniels signed into law PL-90 which made significant changes to Indiana's educator evaluation system by changing Indiana education law in the areas of staff performance evaluations, teacher status, teacher contracts, and teacher compensation. This study focused on the section of PL-90 specifically related to the requirements for performance evaluation plans for certified school employees and its impact on the work of Indiana high school assistant principals.

PL-90 mandated that, beginning with the 2012-13 school year, a staff performance evaluation plan must contain multiple components: (1) evaluations must occur at least annually, (2) objective measures of student achievement and growth must significantly inform the evaluation, (3) the evaluation must include rigorous measures of effectiveness including observations, and (4) the evaluation must include recommendations for improvement with the time in which improvement is expected. Additionally, certified employees must be annually designated into one of four performance categories (highly effective, effective, improvement necessary, ineffective). The final component requires that a teacher who negatively affects student achievement

and growth cannot be rated as highly effective or effective. These changes will require more teacher observations and greater differentiation among teachers than the previous procedures (Whiteman et al., 2011). These new performance evaluation plans were mandated to be implemented during the 2012-13 school year unless a school corporation's previous performance evaluation plan was a part of a negotiated collective bargaining agreement that ended after July 1, 2013.

PL-90 also stipulates that school corporations have multiple options for their professional development plan. School corporations can select to use the RISE evaluation system which was developed by the Indiana Department of Education and contains two components: professional practice and student learning. Professional practice is measured using a teacher effectiveness rubric with three domains: planning, instruction, and leadership. RISE requires a minimum of two extended observations (at least 40 minutes) and three short observations (at least 10 minutes) per school year. Student learning is measured using student learning objectives on state and local-developed assessments (Indiana Department of Education, n.d.). School corporations can select a Corporation-Modified RISE system by slightly modifying the RISE evaluation by changing the number of observations or the relative weights of the two components. School corporations can select to use The System for Teacher and Student Advancement (TAP). The TAP model includes 4-6 teacher evaluations per year which includes pre- and post-observation conferences. Student growth and achievement data are calculated for individual teachers and for the school as a whole. The TAP model uses master teachers in addition to administrators to evaluate teachers and provide professional development (National Institute for Excellence in Teaching, 2014). Finally, school

corporations can elect to create a Corporation-Developed Plan that meets all of the requirements of the law.

This requirement of annual performance evaluations for all teachers may demand organizational changes within school corporations. The Indiana Department of Education (IDOE) recognized this and sent a memo to all school corporations questioning superintendents about their corporation's capacity to meet the time commitment and evaluator requirements of the law (M. Schlegel, personal communication, October 21, 2011). The requirements of PL-90 may cause administrators to spend more time on instructional leadership activities and successful implementation will require more training (16-20 hours) to help evaluators differentiate among teachers and improve classroom instruction (IDOE, 2012). School corporations may need to reallocate their financial, organizational, and human capital to accommodate the new educator evaluation law (Whiteman et al., 2011). Personnel will be needed to fulfill the student assessment and data management requirements, design and administer professional development, and complete teacher evaluation forms including collection of data from other evaluators and student growth data. These personnel may be comprised of school employees or outside vendors. The only stipulation is that evaluators must be trained and supported in this work. This reallocation of organizational and human capital will likely impact the roles, responsibilities, and work experiences of assistant principals.

Teacher Evaluation

Teacher evaluations should identify and measure the instructional strategies, professional behaviors, and delivery of content knowledge that impact student learning (Danielson & McGreal, 2000). Teacher evaluations should be able to distinguish

effective from ineffective teachers so that administration can make school personnel decisions including tenure, contract renewal, and merit pay. However, many researchers question the validity and reliability of current teacher evaluations (Jacob & Lefgren, 2008; Kimball & Milanowski, 2009; Looney, 2011; Tuytens & Devos, 2011). Evaluators placed more emphasis on identifying strengths and weaknesses of teachers rather than differentiating effective from ineffective teachers (Kimball & Milanowski, 2009). Since other duties require their attention, evaluators often did not make time for observation (Kimball & Milanowski, 2009; Looney, 2011; Tuytens & Devos, 2011). Evaluators also were not skilled at evaluating teachers and needed more training (Kane et al., 2012; Kimball & Milanowski, 2009; Sartain, Stoelinga, & Krone, 2010). At the high school level, the importance of subject matter expertise, which evaluators did not have for all subjects, made teacher evaluation more challenging (Goe, Holdheide, & Miller, 2011; Painter, 2000).

Conversely, other researchers argue that teacher evaluation systems were valid and reliable (Kane et al., 2012; Milanowski, 2004; Odden, 2004). Performance-based teacher evaluation systems were sufficiently reliable and valid to be used for high-staked decisions such as merit pay (Odden, 2004). A study by Kane et al. (2012) found that some observation instruments were positively associated with student achievement gains. Combining the observation scores with evidence of student achievement gains and student feedback improved their predictive power and reliability. The authors concluded that high-quality classroom observations require clear standards, certified evaluators, and multiple observations (Kane et al., 2012).

One of the most common methods of teacher evaluation was the use of principals and assistant principals to conduct teacher observations (Goe, Bell, & Little, 2008). In their role as instructional leaders, principals and assistant principals are expected to improve student learning outcomes by "using frequent classroom observation and student performance data to evaluate instructional quality, and regularly providing teachers with prompt, high-quality feedback" (IDOE, 2010, p. 3). Building-level administers will need to spend more time on instructional leadership activities, especially teacher evaluations, to meet these expectations. Additionally, the implementation of high-stakes teacher performance evaluations requires significant training for principals. Moreover, greater authority and more district support are needed for principals to implement the significant changes to the teacher performance evaluation process (Derrington, 2011).

During the 2011-12 school year, the Tennessee Department of Education (TDOE) implemented high-stakes teacher evaluations as part of Tennessee's First to the Top Act (TDOE, 2012). During the first year of implementing the new high-stakes teacher evaluations, TDOE (2012) found greater differentiation in ratings of individual teachers than ever before. With extensive training and evaluators' confidence in their ability to observe, evaluators were able to identify teachers with above average student achievement growth. However, they failed to identify the lowest performing teachers (TDOE, 2012). One of the greatest benefits of the new evaluation systems as reported by Tennessee teachers and administrators was increased discussions about instruction resulting from classroom observations (TDOE, 2012). Over 90% of Tennessee teachers reported that evaluators used the evaluation rubric for discussing the observation and providing suggestions for improvement (Pepper, Burns, & Springer, 2012).

Indiana piloted high-stakes teacher evaluations in six school corporations during the 2011-12 school year. The findings from the Indiana pilot study were similar to those found in Tennessee. There was greater differentiation in teacher ratings than previously, but evaluators still rated only 9% of teachers as ineffective or needs improvement (IDOE, 2012). Indiana teachers reported receiving nearly twice as much feedback as they did the previous year and the majority of evaluators used observations in providing that feedback. Indiana pilot administrators reported a significant shift in responsibilities spending nearly twice as much time than the previous year on instructional leadership activities including teacher evaluation and professional development (IDOE, 2012).

Instructional Leadership

Building-level school administrators impact teacher development and student learning through their instructional leadership practices (Hallinger, 2003; Leithwood, Day, Sammons, Hopkins, & Harris, 2006). Policymakers and practitioners often conceive instructional leadership through a narrow lens focused solely on classroom instruction (Leithwood & Seashore-Louis, 2012). However, Leithwood (2012) describes his successful school instructional leadership framework more broadly as an integration of the practices of transformational leadership and traditional instructional leadership. The primary focus of transformational leadership models is the practices to create organizational cultures and structures to support these improvements. The primary focus of traditional instructional leadership models is the practices to improve the quality of classroom instruction. This successful school leadership framework contains a list of core practices based upon the analysis of more than 40 published and 140 unpublished studies (Leithwood et al., 2006).

Day et al. (2011) and Leithwood and Seashore-Louis (2012) have titled the four categories of successful school leadership as *setting directions, developing people, refining and aligning the organization,* and *improving the teaching and learning program*. Setting directions is a critical aspect of successful school leadership consisting of framing a sense of purpose and vision through the development of shared understandings about the school and its goals (Leithwood & Riehl, 2005). Developing people consists of the practices whose primary aim is building the staff members' capacity to accomplish organizational goals. This capacity building includes not only the knowledge and skills but also the dispositions to persist in applying the "technical core' of teaching and learning (Leithwood, Harris, & Hopkins, 2008; Leithwood & Riehl, 2005). Refining and aligning the organization includes the practices used by successful school leaders to develop effective organizations that support and sustain teacher and student performance (Leithwood & Riehl, 2005). Improving the teaching and learning program includes the set of leadership practices that provide the coordination of the organizational practices needed to provide stability necessary for improvement (Leithwood, 2007). These four categories of practices capture the evidence about what successful school leaders do in most contexts. However, the enactment of these core practices must be sensitive to context (Day et al., 2011; Leithwood, 2007; Leithwood et al., 2008). This study utilized this broader, integrated instructional leadership model to identify leadership practices and actions that have been found to positively impact student learning.

Assistant Principals

Assistant principals are critical leaders in US schools who fulfill a vital role by maintaining organizational stability and effective relations with teachers, students, and parents (Armstrong, 2009). Marshall and Hooley (2006) described the work of assistant principals as critical for the implementation of state laws because assistant principals translate state mandates into everyday realities in schools. Additionally, studying the assistant principalship is important because assistant principals comprise a large portion of the school-level administrative workforce (Armstrong, 2009). Moreover, the assistant principal is often the entry-level position for administrative careers from which principals are chosen (Hausman et al., 2002; Kwan, 2009; Marshall & Hooley, 2006; Matthews & Crow, 2010).

As the entry-level position into school administration, the socialization of assistant principals impacts how they perceive and enact their roles. The socialization process has a large impact on assistant principals because they receive little or no detailed instruction on performing their new roles (Armstrong, 2010). This socialization occurs through the assistant principals' interactions with school stakeholders, including the principal, other assistant principals, teachers, students, and secretaries (Armstrong, 2009). Assistant principals also affect their own socialization by undertaking role taking and/or role making (Armstrong, 2009; Matthews & Crow, 2010). Role taking involves a replication of the status quo thus limiting the ability of assistant principals to reconstruct their roles and change the culture of schools (Armstrong, 2009). On the other hand, role making involves assistant principals participating in their socialization by reconstructing their roles in schools (Armstrong, 2009; Matthews & Crow, 2010). Since the new high-

stakes teacher evaluation laws require roles that are not a part of their traditional roles, how assistant principals navigate the implementation of the new laws may be similar to the socialization of new assistant principals.

The traditional work of the assistant principals is to maintain the status quo through daily student discipline and organizational management tasks (Celikten, 2001; Cranston, Tromans, & Reugebrink, 2004; Hausman et al., 2002; Lee, Kwan, & Walker, 2009). According to Cranston et al. (2004), assistant principals spent the majority of their time supervising and disciplining students while spending very little time on instructional improvement. Hausman et al. (2002) found that Maine assistant principals had significant involvement with student management but very little involvement with instructional leadership. In Indiana, high school assistant principals' primary tasks included student discipline and supervision (Grate, 2005; Scott, 2011). However, recent accountability reforms like NCLB have led to a decreased involvement in management tasks and an increased involvement in instruction-related tasks for assistant principals in New York state (Sun, 2012). The requirements of PL-90 may continue this trend by causing building-level administrators to have greater involvement in instructional leadership activities and reduced involvement in student management and organizational stability tasks.

Problem Statement

Teacher quality is the school factor that has the greatest impact on the academic achievement of students as measured by standardized test scores (Coleman et al., 1966; Goldhaber & Brewer, 2000; Jacob & Lefgren, 2008). A high-quality teacher can have a significant impact on student achievement. For example, Hanushek (1992) found that, all

things being equal, a student with a high-quality teacher will achieve 1.0 grade-level equivalent more than a student with a low-quality teacher. A more recent study by Aaronson, Barrow, and Sander (2007) found one standard deviation improvement in teacher quality translated into a 22% increase in math achievement in one year. Therefore, it is not surprising that the current accountability movement at both the federal and state levels has focused on teacher quality as a primary method of improving k-12 education in America. The United States Department of Education (USDOE) implemented its RTT program to incentivize states to reform k-12 education. One of the pillars of RTT is recruiting, developing, rewarding, and retaining effective teachers and principals. RTT spurs states to design and implement rigorous and fair evaluation systems for teachers and administrators that classify educator effectiveness in multiple categories. Additionally, RTT describes how these evaluations should be used in a variety of school personnel decisions including professional development, compensation, tenure, and removal of ineffective teachers.

PL-90, Indiana's high-stakes teacher evaluation law, requires the implementation of staff performance evaluation plans with at least annual teacher evaluations. These teacher evaluations must utilize student achievement and growth data as well as other rigorous measures of effectiveness, including classroom observations. Some research has indicated that, in order to achieve high levels of reliability in evaluating teacher effectiveness, observations of multiple lessons by multiple evaluators is needed (Kane et al., 2012). Therefore, the implementation of PL-90 may require assistant principals to take a more active role in teacher evaluation and to renegotiate their work amid the demands for annual evaluations that differentiate teacher and principal effectiveness. In

many school corporations, primary roles of assistant principals could become student assessment coordinator, data manager, professional development expert, and teacher evaluator (Whiteman et al., 2011).

Research Questions

The purpose of this study was to examine the ways in which the roles, responsibilities, and work experiences of Indiana high school assistant principals were impacted by the implementation of PL-90. The requirements of the law may be added to the responsibilities they were previously assigned causing Indiana high school assistant principals to renegotiate their roles. Therefore, this study examined the involvement of Indiana high school assistant principals in fulfilling the specific requirements of the new high-stake accountability law. Secondly, as responsibilities are added to conform to the new requirements, the traditional duties of assistant principals may be lessened or changed. Thus, this study examined how PL-90 impacted the traditional student and organizational management roles of assistant principals. Additionally, implementation of the high-stakes teacher evaluation law in Tennessee led to increased instructional leadership duties for building-level leaders (TDOE, 2012). Therefore, this study utilized the core practices of the successful school leadership framework to examine the enactment of instructional leadership by assistant principals. Because context is important to the enactment of the successful school leadership (Day et al., 2011; Leithwood, 2007; Leithwood et al., 2008), studying the factors enabling or constraining the impacts of PL-90 on the work of Indiana high school assistant principals was also important.

This study focused on the work experiences of Indiana high school assistant principals and the impact of the implementation of PL-90 from the perspective of those in the role based on the following research questions.

1. How did Indiana high school assistant principals perceive the impact of PL-90 on their work? Specifically, how did they perceive the impact of PL-90 in relation to:
    a. the requirements of PL-90,
    b. traditional assistant principal roles and responsibilities, and
    c. their role as instructional leaders?
2. What kinds of factors enabled or constrained the different impacts of PL-90 on the work of Indiana high school assistant principals?

Significance of the Study

The purpose of this study was to understand how the implementation of PL-90 impacted the roles, responsibilities, and work experiences of Indiana high school assistant principals from the perspective of those in this role. Studying the experiences of Indiana high school assistant principals during the implementation of PL-90 will increase the understanding of the assistant principalship and high-stakes teacher performance evaluations. Assistant principals "create their own interpretations of policy to fit school needs and develop related political skills for presenting explanations of their schools' needs and strengths to parents, teachers, students, and people in high district office positions" (Marshall & Hooley, 2006, p. 54). Goe et al. (2011) recommended conducting research during the implementation of the high-stakes teacher evaluation laws because the limited research that has been conducted on comprehensive teacher evaluations has

taken place in low-stakes environments. The findings of this study can illuminate for policymakers, practitioners, and researchers the influence of intensified educator accountability laws and regulations on Indiana high school assistant principals and their work.

Assistant principals are important leaders in schools. Despite their importance, scholarship in education and school leadership have often overlooked the work of assistant principals (Celikten, 2001; Cranston et al., 2004; Hausman et al., 2002; Lee et al., 2009; Sun, 2012; Wong, 2009). This lack of research is particularly acute in two areas: high school assistant principals (Cranston et al., 2004) and the instructional leadership role of assistant principals (Celikten, 2001). Additionally, there have been studies on the effect of the new accountability laws on the work of principals (Shipps & White, 2009) but not on the work of assistant principals (Cranston et al., 2004). Furthermore, the research concerning assistant principals and teacher evaluation indicates that evaluators did not have enough time to work closely with teachers during the evaluation process (Kimball & Milanowski, 2009; Looney, 2011; Tuytens & Devos, 2011). Assistant principals' time was consumed by their management of student behavior leaving very little time to work on curriculum and instruction related tasks (Oleszewski, Shoho, & Barnett, 2012). Principals also did not share the responsibility to evaluate teachers with their assistant principals (Celikten, 2001; Cranston et al., 2004). Therefore, this research addresses three gaps in research: (a) the impact of high-stakes educator accountability laws on the work of assistant principals, (b) instructional leadership roles and responsibilities of assistant principals, and (c) the unique role of high school assistant principals.

In particular, the study can help policymakers better understand how high-stakes accountability policies are being implemented and experienced in schools from the perspective of high school assistant principals. It too might provide insights into both intended and unintended consequences of these policies (e.g. the effect on other roles and responsibilities of assistant principals). These insights may assist Indiana legislators and the Indiana Department of Education in revising and implementing laws and rules governing high-stakes educator evaluations. By having a greater understanding of the impact of these laws on the work of assistant principals, local-level policymakers can make more informed decisions about implementing the law, including staffing of high schools and updating job descriptions. The findings may help these local policymakers in providing additional training needed for evaluators. For policymakers in other states, the findings may assist them in developing their own high-stakes educator evaluation laws.

For practitioners, the study will provide a description of Indiana high school assistant principals' involvement in high-stakes educator performance evaluations. Moreover, the study will provide a description of the impact of PL-90 on other roles and responsibilities of high school assistant principals. These descriptions may benefit other Indiana high school assistant principals as they engage in role taking and/or role making of their own positions. The findings may help building-level administrators balance the demands of the new performance evaluations with their existing duties. Additionally, this research may illuminate areas of needed university preparation and continuous professional development for high school assistant principals.

For researchers, the findings of this study may provide insights that will lead to further research about the work of high school assistant principals and the

implementation of high-stakes educator evaluation laws. They may provide insight into how assistant principals understand state mandates and how they translate these requirements into everyday realities. The findings related to instructional leadership practices of Indiana high school assistant principals may assist researchers in beginning to develop a framework of instructional leadership for assistant principals. The findings also may assist researchers in revising their frameworks of instructional leadership for principals by understanding how high-stakes educator evaluation laws are impacting all building-level leaders.

Methodology

To study the work of Indiana high school assistant principals during the implementation of PL-90 from their perspective, a mixed methods sequential explanatory research design was utilized. In general, mixed methods research involves collecting, analyzing, and integrating or "mixing" quantitative and qualitative data in a research study for the purpose of gaining a better understanding of the research problem than either approach can provide alone (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011; Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2009). Specifically, a sequential explanatory design is a mixed-method research design in which there are two distinct phases: (1) the collection and analysis of quantitative data and (2) the collection and analysis of qualitative data. The quantitative phase of study provides a general understanding of the problem and informs the design of the qualitative phase. The qualitative phase explains the quantitative results by exploring the participants' views in greater depth (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011; Ivankova et al., 2006). Since little is known about the impact of high-stakes evaluations on the work of administrators (Goe et al., 2011), this design is a straightforward process and will provide

for a deeper explanation of the findings for the quantitative phase (Ivankova, Creswell, & Stick, 2006). The quantitative phase of this study consisted of an internet-based survey sent to all Indiana high school assistant principals. The qualitative phase entailed follow-up interviews of a stratified sample of six participants from the quantitative phase.

Quantitative Phase

For the quantitative phase of this study, the self-developed 2013 Indiana High School Assistant Principal Survey (See Appendix A) was sent to all Indiana high school assistant principals and the resulting data were analyzed. The purpose of the quantitative phase was to develop a broad understanding of the work of Indiana high school assistant principals and the impact of the implementation of PL-90 on their work.

Participants. The participants of the quantitative phase were all Indiana high school assistant principals during the 2012-13 school year. The researcher identified the participants by finding the individual(s) listed as assistant principal on the websites of all 280 high schools who received a grade from the IDOE in the fall of 2012. Emails were sent to each of these assistant principals inviting them to participate by accessing the internet-based survey via an attached internet address.

Data collection. Surveys are the best method to understand the views of the entire population (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011). The internet-based survey consisted of four sections. In the first section, all participants were asked to identify their level of involvement in 40 assistant principal leadership practices and actions using a 5-point Likert type scale. These leadership actions consisted of the requirements of PL-90, the core practices of the successful school leadership framework, and traditional assistant principal duties. In the second section, assistant principals who implemented PL-90

during 2012-13 and were in the same assistant principal position for at least two years were asked to identify how their involvement in the same 40 leadership practices changed because of the implementation of PL-90 on a 5-point Likert type scale. The second section also included a question about the impact of the implementation of PL-90 on their job satisfaction and an open-ended question asking assistant principals to describe the greatest impact that PL-90 had on their work. The third section of the survey collected demographic information about the assistant principals and their schools. This section also included questions about the implementation of PL-90 in their schools. The final section of the survey also asked participants about their interest in participating in the qualitative phase of this study.

Data analysis. The analysis of quantitative data included descriptive statistics, t-tests, and multiple linear regression analyses. For each statement in the first two sections, the mean and standard deviation were calculated. Additionally, means and standard deviations were calculated for the three leadership categories (requirements of PL-90, traditional assistant principal roles and responsibilities, total instructional leadership) and the four core practices of successful school leadership (setting directions, developing people, refining and aligning the organization, and improving the teaching and learning program). These calculations and the demographic data from the third section were organized and displayed using tables and graphs.

To evaluate how assistant principals perceived the impact of the implementation of PL-90 on their work, this study utilized both sections of the survey. Using the data from first section of the survey, the mean scores for assistant principals who were not implementing PL-90 were compared to the mean scores for assistant principal who were

implementing PL-90 on each of the 40 leadership practices and actions, on each of the three leadership categories, and on each of the four core practices of successful school leadership. T-tests and multiple linear regression analyses were then utilized to identify which differences were statistically significant for the leadership categories and core practices of successful school leadership. Using the data from the second section of the survey, the mean scores for changes in the level of involvement for the leadership practices and actions were explored. The mean scores for each leadership category and core practice of successful school leadership were also examined. Additionally, the responses to how the implementation affected job satisfaction and the greatest impacts of the implementation on their work as assistant principals were explored.

To evaluate the kinds of factors that enabled or constrained the implementation of PL-90 on the work of high school assistant principals, multiple linear regression analyses were utilized. For each multiple regression, the independent variables were the demographic data from the third section and the dependent variable was the leadership category or core practice of successful school leadership in the second section of the survey.

Qualitative Phase

For the qualitative phase of this study, a stratified sample of participants in the quantitative phase was interviewed. The purpose of this phase was to elaborate on the quantitative findings.

Participants. The participants for the qualitative phase of this study were selected from the participants in the quantitative phase using a stratified sample. The participants were selected from the pool of assistant principals who were in the same

position for two or more years and who implemented PL-90 during 2012-13. Sampling began by selecting two dimensions of that demonstrate differences between groups: gender and school size. Strata (e.g. female and 1,000 or fewer students) were created by combining two dimensions (Teddlie & Yu, 2007). One assistant principal was chosen from each stratum for a total of six participants for this phase.

Data Collection. The participants of the qualitative phase were asked to participate in two interviews lasting approximately 60 minutes each. The research questions and previous research were used to develop the questions for the first interview of the qualitative phase of this study. The data analysis from the quantitative phase and the first interview were used to develop the questions for the second interview.

Each set of questions was organized into an interview guide, a listing of topics to be covered in the interview that led the lines of inquiry for the interview (Marshall & Rossman, 2010; Weiss, 1995). The qualitative interviews were designed to achieve a deeper understanding of the work assistant principals by the participants sharing both external events and the internal thoughts and feelings about the events. The researcher assisted participants in expounding upon their lives without offering interpretations or judgments by using open-ended questions, eliciting stories, avoiding "why" questions, and following up using the participants phrasing (Hollway & Jefferson, 1997).

Data Analysis Procedures. In qualitative studies, data collection and analysis go together in the building of a coherent interpretation of the phenomenon (Marshall & Rossman, 2010). The researcher organized data as it was collected and the interviews were transcribed. Through careful reading and re-reading of the interviews, he began to develop initial themes and categories (Debray, 2005). These themes were the words and

metaphors evoked (Larson, 1997) by the assistant principals as they described their work experiences during the implementation of PL-90. After themes or categories were identified, the researcher searched the data for evidence that supported or disconfirmed them. The purpose of the second interview was member checking and delving deeper into the themes revealed in the first interview and the quantitative phase. The researcher asked the assistant principals if the themes or categories were consistent with their experiences.

Integrating the Quantitative and Qualitative Findings

Integration of the quantitative and qualitative phases of this study occurred at two stages. The first integration occurred when the findings of the survey are used to select participants and to revise the interview guide as needed. The second integration occurred after the qualitative data had been collected and analyzed. The quantitative survey data analysis provided an interpretation of high school assistant principals' work at the generalized state level while the qualitative interview data analysis provided a more in-depth understanding of their work at the local level. The final integration focused on how the findings of the qualitative data explain the findings of the quantitative data (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011).

Limitations of the Study

As with any study, this study has limitations in its application and generalization. These limitations include:

1. This study took place in Indiana at a specific time (during the implementation of a new high-stakes educator evaluation law). Therefore, the findings may not be generalizable to other states and to other times in Indiana.

2. This study only involved high school assistant principals and the results may not be generalizable to elementary and middle school assistant principals.
3. This study focused on the perceptions of the assistant principals and does not represent the perceptions of other school stakeholders.
4. This study utilized the self-report data by Indiana high school assistant principals and did not include observations. Self-reported data always contain a possibility of perception errors and bias (Burke & Collins, 2001).
5. This study asked participating Indiana high school assistant principals to compare the most recent school year with previous years from their memory rather than using a pre and post assessment model.
6. The quantitative survey could be limited because the response rate was 29.2% (Fowler, 2002; Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2009).
7. The quantitative results of the study could be limited because the researcher's categories may not have been the same as the participants' understanding of them (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004).
8. The quantitative data analysis may be limited because means are calculated on interval and ratio data and not on nominal and ordinal data. However, the responses on the 5-point Likert type scales for which means were calculated were ordinal data meaning the intervals between responses may not be equal or viewed as equal by respondents.
9. The survey results may miss out on important data related to the work of Indiana high school assistant principals during the implementation of PL-90 because the focus of the survey was elsewhere (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie,

2004; Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2009). However, the qualitative phase may have revealed this important data.

10. The qualitative phase of this study and its findings may be limited by how articulate and perceptive the interviewees were (Creswell, 2009).
11. Mixed methods research is difficult for novice researchers because it requires knowledge of quantitative and qualitative methods (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011; Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2009).
12. Lack of integration of the quantitative and qualitative findings is a major deficiency of mixed methods research practice (Jang, McDougall, Pollon, Herbert, & Russell, 2008).

Despite the limitations of this study, readers may find the results useful. Readers of the study can compare findings with their own knowledge of and experience in schools to determine which of the findings are particular to this phenomenon and which findings may reflect experiences across the nation (Larson, 1997).

Conclusion

In 2010, RTT incentivized state level k-12 education to improve student achievement and growth. RTT encouraged states to design and implement rigorous and fair evaluation systems for teachers and administrators that differentiate effectiveness into multiple categories. In 2011, PL-90 became law in Indiana and required high-stakes evaluations of educators. The implementation of PL-90 will impact the work of Indiana building-level administrators (Whiteman et al., 2011) as annual staff performance evaluations become the foundation of school personnel and compensation decisions.

The purpose of this study was to understand how the roles, responsibilities, and work experiences of Indiana high school assistant principals were impacted by the implementation of PL-90 from the perspective of those in this role. Specifically, this study investigated how Indiana high school assistant principals perceived their involvement in the implementation of the requirements of PL-90. Second, this study examined how they perceived the impact of PL-90 on their traditional roles in student management and organizational stability. Third, this study explored how Indiana high school assistant principals perceived any changes in their role as instructional leader. Finally, this study examined the factors that enabled or constrained the different impacts of PL-90 on the work of Indiana high school assistant principals. A sequential explanatory mixed method research design was utilized to gain a broader and deeper understanding of these phenomena.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

Introduction

In order to provide a foundation for understanding the work of Indiana high school assistant principals during the implementation of Public Law 90-2011 (PL-90), Indiana's high-stakes teacher evaluation law, this literature review is intended to be a comprehensive analysis and synthesis of scholarship on teacher evaluation, instructional leadership, and the work of assistant principals. It contains five sections. The first section is a review of the methodology used in selecting sources. This section includes a description of how literature was located and why certain sources were or were not included in this literature review. The second section focuses on teacher evaluation including initial studies on the implementation of high-stakes teacher evaluations in Tennessee and a pilot study conducted by the IDOE. The third section reviews instructional leadership literature focusing on the core practices of successful school leadership framework proposed by Kenneth Leithwood and his colleagues. The core practices are compared to other models of instructional leadership. The fourth section is a review of literature on the work of assistant principals, focusing on the socialization of assistant principals into their role and the traditional roles and responsibilities they fulfill in schools. The final section of this literature review serves as a summary and presents implications of this literature review for the study.

Literature Review Methodology

Because this literature review is intended to be a comprehensive review of scholarship on teacher evaluation, instructional leadership, and the work of assistant principals, a number of strategies were used to locate sources of information on these

topics. Studies were located using electronic database searches (e.g. JSTOR and EBSCO), general internet search engines (e.g. Google Scholar), and discussions with professors in the Educational Leadership and Policy Studies Department at the Indiana University School of Education. The researcher also reviewed the reference sections of articles to identify additional sources and authors related to his research topic. He focused on articles published after 2000 because the accountability movement increased during President George W. Bush's presidential campaign leading up to the passage of NCLB in 2002 and has continued under the leadership of President Barack Obama. Particular attention was paid to resources that focused on high schools. The primary sources for this review are empirical studies published in peer-reviewed journals. Books written by experts in the field are also included.

The search terms used to locate studies of teacher evaluation included *teacher evaluation*, *supervision*, *classroom observation*, and *teacher appraisal*. The search terms used for instructional leadership included *instructional leadership*, *school leadership, educational leadership, principal leadership,* and *leadership for learning*. The researcher also conducted searches by combining the word *leadership* with the names of expert authors (e.g. Hallinger, Liethwood, and Marzano). The search terms used to locate studies of assistant principals were *assistant principal*, *associate principal*, *vice principal*, and *deputy headteacher*.

Moreover, the terms used for teacher evaluation and instructional leadership were combined with the terms for assistant principal to locate articles specifically related to the work of assistant principals in each of these areas. These combined searches produced few results. Therefore, the searches expanded to include principal/headteacher and found

significantly more studies. This difference is supported by Sun (2012) who "found 35 times more articles when the keyword 'principal' was used than when 'assistant principal' was used" (p. 154). The researcher decided to include principals to understand the experience of building-level administrators related to teacher evaluations that may also apply to assistant principals. For instructional leadership, the resources were focused almost exclusively on principals.

After collecting the studies, each article was reviewed for its purpose, research questions, methodology, sample, findings, and conclusions. The most relevant studies were selected for further reading based on their relationship to the research interest, then arranged by topic. For the teacher evaluation studies, the researcher selected research related to the relationship of teacher evaluations to student achievement and the role of building-level administrators in teacher evaluation. Because the current political discussion centers around the use of teacher evaluations to improve student performance, he included sources about the relationship between teacher evaluation and student achievement. The researcher included studies of building-level administrators because the assistant principal is a building-level administrative position. He excluded all other teacher evaluation studies because, while valuable, they are not related to his research interest. For instance, he did not include study of teacher perceptions of the new laws because they are not directly related to the research interest.

In researching instructional leadership, the researcher initially selected resources that linked instructional leadership with student learning, achievement, and growth. When reviewing the reference sections of the resources, he noticed that Philip Hallinger and Kenneth Leithwood were the most commonly-included authors. Their leadership

frameworks were also discussed in most of these resources. Therefore, he expanded my search to resources authored by these leaders in the field.

For assistant principalship studies, the researcher selected studies concerning the socialization of assistant principals, the roles and responsibilities of assistant principals, and their involvement in teacher evaluation and instructional leadership. The socialization of assistant principals is important because of the impact of the socialization process on *what* and *how* assistant principals enact their important school leadership roles. He included the roles and responsibilities of assistant principals because his study was focused on the work of assistant principals. Teacher evaluation and instructional leadership studies were reviewed because they are directly related to this research. All the sources were selected in order to create a better understanding of the work of Indiana high school assistant principals during the implementation of PL-90.

Teacher Evaluation

With the emphasis that NCLB and RTT have placed on increasing student achievement and growth, identifying teachers that are effective at increasing student learning has become more urgent (Strong, Gargani, & Hacifazlioğlu, 2011). Teacher evaluations should identify and measure the instructional strategies, professional behaviors, and delivery of content knowledge that affect student learning (Danielson & McGreal, 2000). RTT requires states to design and implement rigorous and fair evaluation systems for teachers that classify teacher effectiveness in multiple categories (i.e. highly effective, effective, needs improvement, and ineffective). Additionally, RTT describes how these evaluations should be used in a variety of school personnel decisions including professional development, removal of ineffective teachers and merit-based pay.

This review of the literature on teacher evaluations is divided into four sections: validity and reliability, principal effectiveness, RTT and high-stakes teacher evaluations, and gaps in the research. It is important that teacher evaluation systems are valid and reliable (Looney, 2011). Validity means that the evaluation system meets the intended purpose and reliability means the evaluators' ratings are consistent across observations. Many researchers question the validity and reliability of teacher evaluation systems (Jacob & Lefgren, 2008; Kimball & Milanowski, 2009; Looney, 2011; Tuytens & Devos, 2011) while other researchers argue that they are valid and reliable (Kane et al., 2012; Milanowski, 2004; Odden, 2004). Principals are central to the teacher evaluation process (Peterson, 2004) and the new high-stakes performance evaluations will require a greater time commitment from principals and an increased emphasis on instructional leadership (Indiana Department of Education, 2012a; Indiana Department of Education, 2012b; Tennessee Department of Education, 2012). Recent research in Tennessee and Indiana on the implementation of new high-stakes performance evaluations indicates that evaluators are spending significantly more time on instructional leadership and providing feedback to teachers. However, they are still ineffective at identifying teacher effectiveness for all teachers (Indiana Department of Education, 2012b; Tennessee Department of Education, 2012). Research concerning the implementation of high-stakes teacher evaluations is needed to understand how these laws are affecting evaluators (Goe et al., 2011).

Validity and Reliability

Teacher evaluations should be able to distinguish effective from ineffective teachers. However, Jacob and Lefgren (2008) suggest principals are generally effective

at identifying only the lowest and highest performing teachers while being ineffective at distinguishing among those in the middle 60-80%. In addition, evaluators can achieve relatively high levels of agreement on teacher evaluation scores that are absolutely inaccurate in predicting teacher effectiveness at improving standardized tests scores (Strong et al., 2011). Kimball and Milanowski (2009) suggest that this inability is related to the complex interaction of an evaluator's will, skill, and evaluation context. With respect to context, evaluators tend be more lenient because they work in the same building and want to maintain good relationships with employees (Kimball & Milanowski, 2009; Peterson, 2004). Evaluators do not have the will to differentiate effectiveness between teachers because they place more emphasis on identifying strengths and weaknesses (Kimball & Milanowski, 2009) and often do not make time for observation since many other duties require their attention (Kimball & Milanowski, 2009; Looney, 2011; Tuytens & Devos, 2011). Evaluators also are not skilled at evaluating teachers and need more training (Kane et al., 2012; Kimball & Milanowski, 2009; Sartain et al., 2010). At the middle school and high school levels, teacher evaluation is especially challenging because the evaluator's subject matter expertise is so important (Goe et al., 2011; Painter, 2000). Therefore, principals at the elementary level are more effective at predicting value-added scores than secondary principals (Jacob & Lefgren, 2008). In sum, these findings indicate that principals experience difficulties in distinguishing teacher effectiveness.

Contrary to these findings, some researchers suggest teacher performance evaluations are valid and reliable. Some researchers have found teacher effectiveness can be distinguished using teacher evaluations (Kane et al., 2012; Milanowski, 2004; Odden,

2004). Milanowski (2004) concluded that the Cincinnati Public Schools' teacher evaluation system scores had a moderate degree of validity. Odden (2004) concluded that performance-based teacher evaluation systems had sufficient reliability and validity to be used for high-stakes decisions such as merit pay. Kane et al. (2012) found that some observation instruments are positively associated with student achievement gains on state assessment in math and English/Language Arts, the Balanced Assessment in Mathematics (BAM), and the open-ended version of the Stanford 9 (SAT9 OE) reading test. To achieve high levels of reliability with trained and certified observers, "the MET project needed to combine scores from multiple raters and multiple lessons" (Kane et al., 2012, p. 8). Kane et al. (2012) suggest combining the observation scores with evidence of student achievement gains and student feedback improved their predictive power and reliability. The authors concluded that high-quality classroom observations require clear standards, certified evaluators, and multiple observations (Kane et al., 2012). Kane et al. (2012) caution against "extrapolating from our results too literally" (p. 9) because the context of the study was different because their observers did not have personal relationships with the teachers observed, their observers watched video instead of being physically in the classroom, and the evaluations were not high-stakes for teachers and observers.

Even when principals can identify ineffective teachers, they have been reluctant to fire them. Non-renewal of a teacher's contract is the most stressful, time-consuming, and emotional task that a principal can perform (Nixon, Packard, & Douvanis, 2010). Union contracts, local and state policies, and precedents set by teacher dismissal experiences contribute to the principal's reluctance to dismiss an ineffective teacher (Cooper,

Ehrensal, & Bromme, 2005). These concerns may be amplified by lack of support from the central office and school board (Painter, 2000; Tucker, 1997). Tucker (1997) hypothesized a number of other contributing factors including: personal discomfort with confrontation, lack of skill to identify ineffective teachers, role conflict between evaluation for professional development and evaluation for summative judgment, and lack of time and financial resources. Painter (2000) proposes that principals would be motivated to remove ineffective teachers if they believed that their actions would result in the actual removal of the teacher.

The new accountability laws are designed not only to differentiate teachers by effectiveness and remove ineffective teachers; but, they are also intended to improve classroom instruction. Tuytens and Devos (2011) discuss four problems with using evaluation feedback to stimulate the professional learning of teachers: (1) inflation of teacher evaluation ratings, (2) little meaningful feedback for improvement, (3) professional development activities are not aligned with evaluation results, and (4) reluctance of evaluators to assume responsibility for their evaluations. Looney (2011) added that school leaders do not have appropriate and valid evaluation tools, do not spend the necessary time, and do not provide recommendations for improvements. Despite these problems, valuable evaluation feedback to teachers does lead to teachers' participation in specific professional learning activities (Looney, 2011; Tuytens & Devos, 2011). Most teachers perceived the feedback from evaluators as useful (Tuytens & Devos, 2011) and focused their priorities for instruction on the areas highlighted in their evaluations (Looney, 2011). The effectiveness of feedback for professional growth depended on the manner in which the feedback was given and opportunities to discuss

teaching methods with peers (Looney, 2011). The evaluator's leadership behavior as perceived by the teacher also contributed to the use of performance evaluations for growth (Tuytens & Devos, 2011). The support a school leader provided to the teacher for his/her teaching had the greatest impact on teacher professional growth. Charismatic leadership and content knowledge leadership also contributed to increased teacher growth from the evaluation process (Tuytens & Devos, 2011). Despite all of the problems, evaluation feedback can stimulate teacher professional learning.

Principal Effectiveness

The use of principals and assistant principals to conduct teacher observations is one of the most common forms of teacher evaluation (Goe et al., 2008). Legally-mandated annual high-stakes teacher performance evaluations will require administrators to spend more time on instructional leadership. The IDOE (2010) expects Indiana school building leaders to prioritize "teacher evaluation over competing commitments" (p. 2) and to use these teacher evaluations to drive improvements in student learning. In their role as instructional leaders, principals and assistant principals are expected to improve student learning outcomes by "using frequent classroom observation and student performance data to evaluate instructional quality, and regularly providing teachers with prompt, high-quality feedback" (IDOE, 2010, p. 3). These expectations will require school building leaders to spend more time on instructional leadership activities, especially teacher evaluations. In addition to spending more time on instructional leadership, the implementation of high-stakes teacher performance evaluations will require significant training for principals (Painter, 2000; Sartain et al., 2010). In the second Measures of Effective Teaching (MET) report, Kane et al. (2012) advocate that

high-quality classroom observations will require clear teaching standards, certified evaluators, and multiple observations of teachers. However, the increased time and effort by principals may not lead to increased student achievement. Research indicates that the time principals spend on day-to-day instruction is associated with high-performing schools but is not associated with improving student achievement (Horng, Klasik, & Loeb, 2010). In contrast, the time principals spend on organizational management has a positive and statistically significant relationship to student achievement and student growth (Horng et al., 2010). Consequently, it might be argued that an administrator who emphasizes instructional leadership and ignores other leadership and management functions may negatively impact student growth. Additionally, principals will need greater authority and more district support to implement the significant changes to the teacher performance evaluation process (Derrington, 2011). One can reasonably assume that this teacher evaluation research is applicable to all building-level administrators as evaluators including assistant principals.

RTT and High-Stakes Teacher Evaluations

RTT incentivized state level k-12 education reform, including a focus on high-stakes teacher evaluation as one of the ways to improve student achievement and growth. RTT encouraged states to implement rigorous and fair evaluation systems for teachers and administrators that differentiate effectiveness into multiple categories. RTT also encouraged these new evaluation systems to be used in making personnel decisions related to retention and compensation. The implementation of high-stakes teacher evaluations as advocated by RTT is in its infancy. Tennessee was one of two states to win the first round of the RTT grant competition (Tennessee Consortium on Research,

Evaluation, and Development, 2012) and began implementation of high-stakes teacher evaluations in the 2011-12 school year as part of Tennessee's First to the Top Act (Tennessee Department of Education, 2012). In April and May of 2012, the Tennessee Consortium on Research, Evaluation, and Development conducted the First to the Top Survey to examine educator perceptions of Tennessee's educator evaluation system (Pepper et al., 2012). Results of this survey were integrated into the Tennessee Department of Education (TDOE) report on the first year of implementation (TDOE, 2012). During the 2011-12 school year, the IDOE piloted Indiana's new high-stakes teacher evaluation system in six school districts. In partnership with The New Teacher Project, IDOE studied the pilot implementation and presented the findings and recommendations to assist school corporations in the 2012-13 state-wide implementation (IDOE, 2012b). These findings begin to shed light on the impact of these new educator performance evaluation policies.

Tennessee First to the Top. Evaluators in Tennessee attended four days of training during the summer of 2011. To ensure that they understood differences in performance levels, evaluators were required to pass an exam that consisted of watching videotaped lessons and rating the teachers for reliability purposes. During the first year of implementing the new high-stakes teacher evaluations, TDOE (2012) found greater differentiation in ratings of individual teachers than ever before. They also found that evaluators were able to identify teachers with above average student achievement growth. However, despite this extensive training and evaluators' confidence in their ability to observe, evaluators failed to identify the lowest performing teachers (TDOE, 2012). This finding differs from Jacob and Lefgren (2008) who found that principals were able to

identify high and low performers. This ineffectiveness may be related to the lack of evaluation skill and the need for more training or it may be related to principals' reluctance to fire ineffective teachers.

One of the greatest benefits of the new evaluation systems as reported by teachers and administrators was "the rich conversations about instruction that result from classroom observations" (TDOE, 2012, p. 15). Over 90% of teachers reported that evaluators used the evaluation rubric for discussing the observation and providing suggestions for improvement (Pepper et al., 2012). Despite this benefit, the quality of feedback and professional development related to observations varied widely throughout the state and even within buildings. Teacher to evaluator ratios also varied greatly throughout the state from a low of 9:1 to a high of 36:1 (TDOE, 2012).

Tennessee administrators reported that they spent a lot of time on the new teacher evaluation system. They wanted to spend more time on observations and feedback while spending less time on data entry related to the evaluation process. Administrators also reported that balancing the demands of the new evaluation system with existing responsibilities was challenging (TDOE, 2012). Principals were not the only administrators involved in the new teacher evaluation system. Assistant principals were also very involved in evaluating teachers in Tennessee. The majority of assistant principals reported conducting 11-60 short observations and over 30 lesson-length observations throughout the school year. Sixty-seven percent of assistant principals surveyed stated that the teacher evaluation process was burdensome and 80% stated that it caused a lot of stress. Despite these challenges, 60% of administrators reported

satisfaction with the teacher evaluation system used in their schools as compared to only 26% of teachers (Pepper et al., 2012).

Indiana Pilot Study. The findings from Indiana's pilot study mirror the findings from Tennessee in many ways. Despite the expectation that 15% of teachers would be rated in the lowest two categories, only 9% were rated as ineffective or needs improvement (IDOE, 2012). Indiana pilot evaluators reported that it was very difficult to rate teachers lower than they had been rated in the past. Like their Tennessee counterparts, the majority of Indiana evaluators used the observation rubrics in providing feedback to teachers. Indiana teachers also reported receiving nearly twice as much feedback as they did the previous year. Indiana pilot administrators reported a significant shift in responsibilities spending nearly twice as much time on teacher evaluation and professional development than they spent in the previous year. The increased time needed to implement the new performance evaluation plans was primarily created by reducing the amount of time spent on administrative and management duties. The IDOE recommended that school corporations eliminate unnecessary administrative duties for building-level administrators by shifting these duties to existing staff or hiring additional staff to perform these duties (IDOE, 2012b).

Gaps in the Teacher Evaluation Literature

The preliminary findings from Tennessee and Indiana indicate a need for more research. Goe et al. (2011) recommended conducting research during the implementation of the new high-stakes teacher evaluation laws. Research is needed to understand how evaluators are using their training to identify effectiveness of all teachers, how evaluators are improving teaching by providing feedback, how secondary evaluators are addressing

their lack of content knowledge in certain areas, and how building-level administrators are balancing the demands of the new performance evaluation systems with their existing duties.

Instructional Leadership

The new high-stakes teacher evaluation laws require building-level administrators to place a greater emphasis on instructional leadership (IDOE, 2012a; IDOE, 2012b; TDOE, 2012). Moreover, recent research in Tennessee and Indiana on the implementation of new high-stakes performance evaluations indicates that evaluators are spending significantly more time on instructional leadership, classroom observations, and feedback to teachers (IDOE, 2012b; TDOE, 2012). With this increased emphasis on instructional leadership, understanding instructional leadership is important to studying the work of Indiana high school assistant principals during the implementation of high-stakes teacher evaluations. This review of the instructional leadership literature will contain four sections. The first section will explain the importance of using an integrated framework to understand instructional leadership. The second section will describe the core practices of successful school leadership framework developed by Leithwood and his colleagues. The impact of contextual factors on the enactment of these practices and the empirical evidence supporting the core practices framework will be examined. The third section will further justify the core practices through the comparison of this framework with other instructional leadership models. The final section will explore gaps in the literature on instructional leadership.

An Integrated Framework

The term "instructional leadership" is often a slogan or synonym for "good" school leadership rather than a reference to an empirically-evaluated model of instructional leadership (Leithwood, 2007; Leithwood et al., 2006). "Successful principal leadership includes careful attention to classroom instructional practices, but it also includes careful attention to many other issues that are critical to the ongoing health and welfare of school organizations" (Leithwood & Seashore-Louis, 2012, p. 67). However, many conceptions of instructional leadership adopted by policymakers and practitioners are excessively narrow by focusing solely on classroom instruction (Leithwood & Seashore-Louis, 2012). The time principals spend on day-to-day instructional activities (e.g. classroom observations) is marginally related to improvements to student performance. However, more time spent on organizational management activities (e.g. hiring and supporting staff and maintaining positive working and learning environments) equates to greater student test-score gains (Horng & Loeb, 2010). Moreover, the narrower conception of instructional leadership focuses on the principals' coaching and modeling which require the principal to have a thorough understanding of curricular content. Secondary administrators cannot have this thorough knowledge of all content areas taught in their schools (Leithwood & Seashore-Louis, 2012). Leithwood (2012) described his instructional leadership framework as an integration of the practices to improve the quality of classroom instruction (the primary focus of traditional instructional leadership models) and the practices to create organizational cultures and structures to support these improvements (the primary focus of transformational leadership models). Therefore, this study for understanding the work of Indiana high

school assistant principals utilized the core practices of successful school leadership developed by Leithwood and his colleagues.

Core Practices of Successful School Leadership

In the last decade of the 20th century, Leithwood (1992) proposed that "instructional leadership" was no longer able to capture what school administration had become in light of the initiatives designed to take schools into the 21st century. He stated,

> The term *instructional leadership* focuses administrators' attention on "first-order" changes – improving the technical, instructional activities of the school through the close monitoring of teachers' and students' classroom work. Yet instructional leaders often make such important "second-order changes" as building a shared vision, improving communication, and developing collaborative decision-making processes. (Leithwood, 1992, p. 9)

Based upon three studies that he had completed with his colleagues, Leithwood (1992) proposed that school administrators should be transformational school leaders who pursue three fundamental goals: *maintaining a collaborative culture, fostering teacher development*, and *improving group problem solving*. Leithwood and his colleagues continued to study successful school leadership and revised his integrated model of transformational school leadership. Leithwood et al. (2006) described a list of core practices for successful school leadership based upon their analysis of more than 40 published studies and 140 unpublished studies. These core practices are not all that school administrators do; but, they are "critical practices known to have significant influence on organizational goals" (Leithwood et al., 2006, p. 15). The core practices are organized into four categories and fourteen more specific sets of practices (Leithwood & Riehl, 2005). Day et al. (2011) and Leithwood and Seashore-Louis (2012) slightly re-titled the four categories to their current names: *setting directions, developing people*,

refining and aligning the organization, and *improving the teaching and learning program*.

Setting Directions. Setting directions is a critical aspect of leadership consisting of framing a sense of purpose or vision through the development of shared understandings about the school and its goals (Leithwood & Riehl, 2005). These practices are a main source of motivation and inspiration for the work of the school staff and they describe the greatest variation of leadership effects (Leithwood, 2007). The three more specific sets of practices that comprise the setting directions category are *building a shared vision*, *fostering the acceptance of group goals*, and *high performance expectations* (Day et al., 2011; Leithwood et al., 2006). Building a shared vision focuses on building and communicating to all stakeholders an inspiring vision for the school (Day et al., 2011). Additionally, leaders build an understanding of how the vision impacts the school's instructional practices and organizational norms (Leithwood, 2012). Fostering acceptance of group goals applies the shared vision to specific short-term goals (Day et al., 2011). The actions of leaders include encouraging staff to evaluate progress toward goals, reviewing individual professional goals with relationship to the school's goals, and making explicit reference to shared goals when making decisions. Having high performance expectations applies to teachers, students, and administrators. Specific leader actions include encouraging staff to accept accountability for achieving the school's vision and goals and devoting additional effort to supporting high expectations for the achievement of students who had traditionally struggled in school (Leithwood, 2012).

Developing People. Developing people consists of the practices whose primary aim is building the staff members' capacity to accomplish organizational goals. This capacity building includes not only the knowledge and skills but also the dispositions to persist in applying the "technical core' of teaching and learning (Leithwood et al., 2008; Leithwood & Riehl, 2005). The practices involved in developing people have the second greatest proportion of leadership effects (Leithwood, 2007). Developing people consists of three more specific sets of practices: *providing individualized support/consideration*, *intellectual stimulation*, and *providing an appropriate model* (Day et al., 2011; Leithwood et al., 2006). Providing individualized support/consideration entails respecting colleagues and having concern about their personal needs and feelings (Day et al., 2011). Specific actions include recognizing the accomplishments of individual staff members, listening to staff members' opinions, and responding to individual staff member's expertise and needs (Leithwood, 2012). Intellectual simulation involves helping staff members to reflect on their instructional practices and how these practices affect student learning. This also includes providing opportunities for staff members to learn from each other, try new practices, and lead discussions about classroom practices. Providing an appropriate model entails leading by example and transparent decision making. Leaders who provide an appropriate model maintain high visibility in their schools and have frequent, meaningful interactions with stakeholders (Day et al., 2011; Leithwood, 2012).

Refining and Aligning the Organization. This category of leadership practices includes the practices used by successful school leaders to develop effective organizations that support and sustain teacher and student performance (Leithwood &

Riehl, 2005). These practices are concerned with establishing the working conditions which allow teachers to utilize their motivations, commitments, and capacities (Leithwood, 2007; Leithwood et al., 2008). Four more specific sets of practice constitute the redesigning the organization category. The practices are *building collaborative cultures*, *restructuring and redefining roles and responsibilities*, *building productive relations with families and communities*, and *connecting the school to its wider environment* (Day et al., 2011). The set of leadership practices defined as building collaborative cultures include fostering open communication among collaborators, encouraging compromise, and providing needed resources to support collaboration (Leithwood, 2012). Restructuring and redefining roles and responsibilities addresses the organizational structures needed to build collaborative cultures (Day et al., 2011). Specific actions include creating regular opportunities for teachers to work together for instructional improvement and engaging teachers in decision making that affects their instructional work (Leithwood, 2012). Building productive relations with families and communities embraces an important role for families and engagement with the larger community. Leadership practices include creating a welcoming environment for parents and community members, valuing parents as partners in their children's education, and encouraging a commitment to engaging parents and community members (Day et al., 2011; Leithwood, 2012). Connecting the school to its wider environment entails school leaders spending time with people outside of the school to seek advice, stay in tune with policy changes, and anticipate pressures and trends likely to impact schools (Day et al., 2011). Specifically, school leaders cultivate connections with expert school leaders, state policymakers, and members of the educational research community (Leithwood, 2012).

Improving the Teaching and Learning Program. This set of leadership practices provides the coordination of the organizational practices needed to provide stability necessary for improvement (Leithwood, 2007). These practices aim to create a productive working environment by supporting organizational stability and strengthening the infrastructure (Leithwood et al., 2008). The four set of practices comprising this category are *staffing the program*, *providing teaching support*, *monitoring school activity*, and *buffering staff from distractions to their work* (Leithwood, 2007). Staffing the program includes recruiting and retaining staff with the interest and capacity to achieve the school's goals and vision (Day et al., 2011). Successful school leaders select new staff members who are committed to improving their instructional practices, have extensive knowledge of content and how best to teach the content, and are willing to work collaboratively toward the school's goals. Leadership practices that assist in the retention of staff include providing professional development, providing time for collaboration, and building trusting relationships (Leithwood, 2012). Providing teaching support includes evaluating instruction, aligning the curriculum, and providing resources for curriculum, instruction, and assessment (Day et al., 2011). Other practices include observing classroom instruction, providing constructive feedback, and being a useful resource of classroom teachers. Monitoring school activity focuses on effectively using systematic data collection and analysis. Leader practices include assisting staff with formative and summative assessment data, collaborating with staff during data collection and analysis, using multiple sources of student data, and providing teachers with time to collect, analyze, and use student data (Leithwood, 2012). Buffering staff from distraction to their work entails preventing staff from being pulled in multiple directions by

incompatible goals (Day et al., 2011). Leader practices include consistently enforcing discipline policies, minimizing disruptions of instructional time, and regularly assessing out-of-classroom activities.

Contingent on Context. The four categories and 14 specific practices capture the evidence about what successful school leaders do in most contexts. These core practices are not all that school leaders do and school leaders do not do all of these practices all of the time. The core practices themselves are not contingent on the context. Rather, the enactment of these core practices are sensitive to context (Day et al., 2011; Leithwood, 2007; Leithwood et al., 2008). Day et al. (2011) identified two main contextual factors that affect the enactment of the core practices in their study of schools in the United Kingdom. The enactment varies between primary and secondary schools. In secondary schools, the importance of improvement in pupil behavior and attendance is more important in promoting improved academic achievement than in primary schools. Leaders of secondary schools place a greater emphasis on encouragement, empowerment, and trust to enhance their professional relationships than primary school leaders. The use of performance data to drive improvement efforts receives greater emphasis in secondary schools as well.

In addition to differences between primary and secondary schools, Day et al. (2011) found that the enactment of the core leadership practices also varies between low, moderate, and high start schools. Low, moderate, and high start schools were identified based upon analyses of assessment and value-added data. Low start schools had improved from low to moderate or high attainment. Moderate start schools moved from moderate to high moderate or high attainment. High start schools maintained high

achievement. All schools were judged highly effective in value added. Their findings found statistically significant differences in the practices among the three groups (Day et al., 2011). Leaders in low start secondary schools experienced major challenges of poor pupil progress, poor reputation within the local community, high rates of student academic failure, and high pupil mobility. To address these changes, leaders in the low start secondary schools were more likely to exhibit a moderate or substantial amount of change in leadership practice. Specifically, these leaders made substantial changes in ensuring wide participation in decision-making about school improvements and clarifying the reasons for the improvement initiatives for their schools. In low start secondary schools, leaders were more likely to regularly observe classrooms and use coaching and mentoring to improve the quality of teaching. These school leaders also placed greater emphasis on using pupil achievement data and research evidence in decision-making. They also encouraged teachers to use data in their work. In summary, school level and student academic achievement are contextual factors that affect how school leaders enact the core practices of successful school leadership.

Empirical Evidence of Core Practices. Justification of the value of the core practices of successful school leadership is based on the analysis of a number of studies. Leithwood and Riehl (2005) described quantitative research studies using accepted methodological standards as their main source of evidence. They also used published or publishable-quality case studies. Leithwood et al. (2006) analyzed more than 40 published studies and 140 unpublished studies to justify these core practices. Day et al. (2011) described the body of evidence supporting the four core practices to contain approximately 50 published studies and 180 unpublished studies conducted since 1990.

"By most social science standards, this body of evidence should be considered relatively large" (Day et al., 2011, p. 18).

The effects of the core practices on student learning are often indirect, through the leader's influence on teachers and the organization of the school (Leithwood, 2007). The core practices help improve teacher performance, motivation, commitment (Leithwood et al., 2008), self-efficacy (Leithwood, 2007), and engagement in their own growth (Leithwood & Seashore-Louis, 2012). Principal use of the core practices also reduces teacher stress and burnout (Leithwood, 2007). Principals influence the organization of the school by developing a culture that promotes student learning and supports teacher professional learning (Leithwood & Seashore-Louis, 2012). Principals who use the core practices also create collaborative cultures and helped teachers solve problems together (Leithwood, 1992). The positive influence of the core practices on teachers and the organization led to improved instruction (Leithwood & Seashore-Louis, 2012). Improved instruction led to improved student learning. The four core practices were positively correlated to increased student achievement in language arts, mathematics, science, and social studies (Valentine & Prater, 2011).

Core Practices and Other Instructional Leadership Frameworks

The core practices of successful school leadership are supported by a wide array of empirical evidence. These core practices are further justified by comparing them with the behaviors based on other leadership models. Specifically, the core practices of successful school leadership will be compared from the perspective of Hallinger's (2003) framework of instructional leadership; the 21 key areas of leadership responsibility from the meta-analysis of Waters, Marzano, and McNulty (2004b), and the five sets of school

leadership dimensions by Robinson, Lloyd, and Rowe (2008). These comparisons will provide further evidence of the validity of the core practices.

Hallinger's Framework of Instructional Leadership. The Principal Instructional Management Rating Scale (PIMRS) is the most fully tested model of instructional leadership (Leithwood et al., 2006). This framework proposes three dimensions of instructional leadership delineated into ten more specific leadership functions (Hallinger, 2003, 2011). The three dimensions of Hallinger's instructional leadership conceptual framework are *defining the school mission*, *managing the instructional program*, and *promoting a positive school learning climate*. The principal's responsibility in defining the school mission is two-fold: (1) ensuring the school goals are clear, measurable, and student-focused and (2) ensuring the goals are known and supported by school community. The leadership functions in defining the school mission are *framing the school's goals* and *communicating the school's goals*. The second dimension, managing the instructional program, involves the principal's role in the coordination and control of school's instructional program. The principal leadership functions entail *coordinating the curriculum, supervising & evaluating instruction*, and *monitoring student progress*. Promoting a positive school learning climate includes a number of leadership functions designed to develop high standards and expectations within a culture of continuous improvement. The principal's leadership functions include *protecting instructional time, providing incentives for teachers, providing incentives for learning, promoting professional development,* and *maintaining high visibility*.

Hallinger's (2003) comparison of his framework of instructional leadership and an early model of Leithwood's model of leadership demonstrates that "the similarities

between the models are more significant than the differences" in terms of "the focus of the principal's improvement-oriented activities" (pp. 342-3). The differences are related to the emphasis that Leithwood places on empowering staff while PIMRS emphasizes coordination and control from the top (Hallinger, 2003). Leithwood et al. (2006) and Day et al. (2011) have also compared the two leadership frameworks and have proposed that the PIMRS leadership practices are included in Leithwood's framework. Defining the school's mission is a part of setting directions. Managing the instructional program is included in the improving the teaching and learning program category. The specific practices of promoting a positive school learning climate are included in two of Liethwood's categories: developing people and refining and aligning the organization (Day et al., 2011; Leithwood et al., 2006). Therefore, Hallinger's PIMRS instructional leadership model supports the core practices of successful school leadership framework.

Waters, Marzano, and McNulty's Meta-analysis. Waters et al. (2004b) reported on the results of a meta-analysis "focused on the effects of principal leadership on student achievement" (p. 2). The meta-analysis involved 70 studies, 2,894 schools, 14,000 teachers, and approximately 1.1 million students. All 70 studies used teachers' perceptions of principal leadership as the independent variable and objective measures of student achievement as the dependent variable (Waters et al., 2004b). Three major conclusions were reached from the analysis of the data. First, effective school leadership has a significant, positive correlation with student achievement. Secondly, 21 key areas of leadership responsibility that are positively correlated with student achievement were identified. Finally, effective leaders know how, when, and why to use these 21 responsibilities (Waters, Marzano, & McNulty, 2004a).

In a comparison of Leithwood's core practices and Waters, Marzano, and McNulty's (2004a, 2004b) meta-analysis, 16 of the 21 responsibilities are encompassed in the core practices (Leithwood et al., 2006). Setting directions includes *inspiring and leading new & challenging innovations* and *establishing clear goals and keeping them in the forefront of attention*. Developing people incorporates *recognizing & rewarding individual accomplishments, demonstrating awareness of personal aspects of teachers and staffs, being willing to and actively challenging the status quo, ensuring faculty & staff are well informed about best practice/fostering regular discussion of them,* and *having quality contacts & interactions with teachers and students*. Refining and aligning the organization encompasses *fostering shared belief & sense of community & cooperation, recognizing and celebrating school accomplishments & acknowledging failures, involving teachers in design and implementation of important decisions and policies,* and *being an advocate & spokesman for school to all stakeholders*. Improving the teaching and learning program includes *establishing set of standard operating procedures & routines; providing materials necessary for job; directly involving in design & implementation of curriculum, instruction and assessment practices; monitoring the effectiveness of school practices & their impact on student learning*, and *protecting teachers from issues & influences that would detract them from their teaching time or focus*. Four of the remaining responsibilities are consider to be traits or dispositions: *being knowledgeable about current curriculum, instruction, & assessment practices*; *communicating & operating from strong ideals & beliefs about schools*; *adapting his or her leadership behavior to the needs of the current situation & being comfortable with dissent*; and *being aware of the details & undercurrents in the running*

of the school & using this information to address current & potential problems. The final responsibility, *establishes strong lines of communication with teachers & among students*, is a behavior not included in the core practices (Leithwood et al., 2006). The core practices of successful leadership include almost all of the 21 leadership responsibilities Waters et al. (2004b) found to be significantly correlated with student achievement.

Robinson, Lloyd, and Rowe's Leadership Dimensions. A more recent framework proposed by Robinson et al. (2008) delineates five sets of inductively-derived school leadership dimensions that were empirically found to positively affect student outcomes. The five leadership dimensions are *establishing goals and expectations*; *strategic resourcing*; *planning, coordinating, and evaluating teaching and the curriculum*; *promoting and participating in teacher learning and development*, and *ensuring an orderly and supportive environment*. The first dimension, establishing goals and expectations, includes involving staff and others in the setting, communicating, and monitoring of learning goals to ensure consensus. The second dimension of leadership, strategic resourcing, entails aligning and allocating resources to these goals. It also involves the recruitment of staff members with appropriate expertise. Planning, coordinating, and evaluating teaching and the curriculum is the third leadership dimension. Principals are directly involved in supporting and evaluating teaching through classroom observations and feedback to teachers. Principals also have direct oversight of the curriculum. The fourth leadership dimension is promoting and participating in teacher learning and development which means the principal is directly involved with promoting and participating in the professional learning of teachers. The

final dimension, ensuring an orderly and supportive environment, involves the principal providing time for teaching and learning by buffering classrooms from external pressures and interruptions (Robinson et al., 2008). Each of these sets of school leadership dimensions is included in one of the four core practices. Therefore, all three instructional leadership frameworks further justify Leithwood's core practices of successful school leadership framework.

Gaps in the Instructional Leadership Literature.

The largest amount of the current research on instructional leadership is focused on principals with smaller amounts focused on district-level administrators and teachers (Leithwood, 2007). Effective principals share leadership responsibilities with staff members, especially assistant principals (Crum & Sherman, 2008), and many researchers have called for assistant principals to become more involved in instructional leadership activities (Barnett, Shoho, & Oleszewski, 2012; Greenfield, 1985; Hausman et al., 2002; Marshall & Hooley, 2006). However, there is a scarcity of research on the instructional leadership practices of assistant principals (Celikten, 2001).

The current research on instructional leadership not only focuses on principals to the exclusion of other school leaders, it also focuses on *what* principals do more than *how* they lead. For example, there is a distinction between principals who conduct a number of classroom observation and principals who conduct classroom observation "with the explicit purpose of engaging teachers about well-defined instructional ideas and issues" (Leithwood & Seashore-Louis, 2012, p. 83). Focusing on *what* and *how* school leaders enact their instructional leadership will expand current scholarship by addressing this missing nuance (Leithwood & Seashore-Louis, 2012). Therefore, the research on

instructional leadership needs to expand to include other school leaders including assistant principals. It also should include qualitative research focused on how school leaders enact their leadership.

Work of Assistant Principals

Assistant principals are critical leaders in US schools who fulfill a vital role in the administrative ranks of school districts. Armstrong (2010) described the assistant principal's location as "at the epicenter of school activity" (p. 707). Assistant principals comprise a large portion of the administrative workforce, especially at the school level (Armstrong, 2009). The assistant principal is often the entry-level position for administrative careers and principals are often chosen from the assistant principal ranks (Hausman et al., 2002; Kwan, 2009; Marshall & Hooley, 2006; Matthews & Crow, 2010). As an entry-level position, the socialization of assistant principals impacts how they perceive and enact their roles. Assistant principals are socialized to fulfill a vital role in school districts by maintaining organizational stability and effective relations with teachers, students, and parents (Armstrong, 2009; Marshall & Hooley, 2006). They also interact regularly with central office personnel, community members, and classified staff members (Armstrong, 2009). The work of assistant principals is "critical for implementing state expectations (laws and policies) as they translate state requirements (e.g., minimum curriculum) into everyday regularities (student schedules and the master schedule)" (Marshall & Hooley, 2006, p. 51). Despite the importance of the position, the roles, responsibilities, and work of assistant principals is an under-researched and often overlooked area in education and school leadership literature (Cranston, Tromans, & Reugebrink, 2004; Hausman, Nebeker, McCreary, & Donldson Jr, 2002).

This review of the literature on the work of assistant principals is divided into three sections. The first section will discuss the research on the socialization of assistant principals as they learn to enact their new roles and responsibilities. School stakeholders, especially the principal, are sources of socialization. The implications of the socialization process include skills and values that assistant principals learn and the unstated rules that constrain their roles and expressions of their values. Assistant principals are active participants in their socialization through role taking and role making behaviors. The second section of this review of literature on the work of assistant principals focuses on their roles and responsibilities. Traditionally, the work of assistant principals has focused on organizational and student management with little time for instructional leadership. Differences in the work of assistant principals have been found to be related to personal (e.g., gender, experience) and school (e.g., size, location) characteristics. In the final section, how the work of assistant principals has been studied and suggestions for future research will be examined.

Socialization

The socialization into this entry-level administrative role impacts how assistant principals perceive and enact their work of implementing state laws and policies and translating state and district requirements into everyday activities. As they begin their positions, assistant principals lack detailed instruction on performing their roles and receive little or no technical training (Armstrong, 2010). The traditional role of the assistant principal is learned and maintained through the rites and rituals which are used to socialize new assistant principals to their responsibilities for student management and maintenance of order (Armstrong, 2010; Matthews & Crow, 2010). The socialization

process includes "stated and unarticulated rules, rewards, and sanctions that teach novices when to take initiative, exercise discretion, and express their views" (Armstrong, 2010, p. 691). This socialization process occurs within an educational landscape where the stress and workloads of assistant principals are increasing. Armstrong (2009) identified changes in education that are impacting assistant principals, including:

1. Large-scale government reforms related to centralization, site-based management, standardization, and testing;
2. School district consolidations, downsizing, and cutbacks in senior administrative staff with concurrent increases in legal responsibilities and accountability;
3. Policy changes that exacerbate traditional tensions between administrators and teachers, e.g., the legislated removal of administrators from teachers' unions and administrators' legal obligation to implement unpopular reforms and compliance measures;
4. Union and district contracts and policies that create artificial distinctions between instruction and management duties;
5. Changing social and economic climates and shifting population demographics; and
6. A prevailing ethic of efficiency and uniformity that ignores the unique characteristics of diverse populations and further limit educational opportunities (p. 5).

Within this context, assistant principals are pressured to act like administrators and "to perform at a high level of competence and to conform to traditional expectations of vice-

principals as ‘enforcers,’ ‘firefighters,’ and ‘problem-solvers’” (Armstrong, 2010, p. 707). Through their interactions with principals, other assistant principals, teachers, students, and other stakeholders, assistant principals are influenced in how they interpret and enact their leadership role (Armstrong, 2009).

Sources of socialization. Assistant principals are impacted by a complicated network of individual and collective bodies both inside and outside of the school (Armstrong, 2009). Principals exert great influence because of their ability to assign duties and evaluate assistant principals (Armstrong, 2009; Hausman et al., 2002; Lee et al., 2009; Wong, 2009). Additionally, principals are a key influence on assistant principals because assistant principals look to the example set by the principal (Mertz, 2006). Moreover, principals influence the assistant principal’s socialization by encouraging specific role images. These roles include what receives attention, the nature of relationships with school stakeholders, issues of control and authority, and what gets rewarded and punished in the school (Matthews & Crow, 2010). Finally, principals influence the socialization of assistant principals by providing or denying support, giving encouragement and advice, mentoring, and sponsorship for future careers (Armstrong, 2009; Matthews & Crow, 2010).

In addition to principals, other school personnel influence the socialization of assistant principals. In schools with multiple assistant principals, the example set by other assistant principals influences the socialization of new assistant principals who watch the experienced assistants to learn how to be successful in their new role (Mertz, 2006). Teachers are another powerful socializing force on assistant principals. New assistant principals are expected to leave the teacher role and distance themselves in their

relationships with teachers (Matthews & Crow, 2010). According to Armstrong (2009), teachers collectively exert tremendous power because of unions. Teachers attempt to influence assistant principals to support different departmental and group agendas. Moreover, teachers often immediately reject the curricular expertise of new assistant principals and attempt to intimidate and humiliate them by questioning their authority. Support staff impacts the work of assistant principals by their proximity and assistant principals often develop closer relationships with their secretaries than with teachers. These support staff members possess a wealth of knowledge about the school that is important for assistant principals to possess for the effective management of the school (Armstrong, 2009).

Students, parents, community members, and government agencies also exert influence on assistant principals. Students influence the socialization of assistant principals by reinforcing the images of authority (Matthews & Crow, 2010). Some parents try to use political and legal power to undermine rules and overturn decisions made by assistant principals. Recent reforms on school governance and accountability have increased the power of parents and community members. Additionally, central office personnel often have the power to select, promote, hire, evaluate, and dismiss assistant principals (Armstrong, 2009). All of these school stakeholders impact the socialization of assistant principals.

In addition to the influence that others have on them, assistant principals are also in the middle of the organizational chart and experience the challenges of middle management. As middle managers within the organizational hierarchy, assistant principals have a tendency to be caught between conflicting agendas, policies,

perspectives, needs, and demands of the different individuals and groups (Armstrong, 2009). Armstrong (2009) described the assistant principal as occupying an unstable political and social location where they experience legal and moral complexity. In this space, assistant principals lack the power that they and others assume they should have (Armstrong, 2009). This middle positionality creates a number of challenges for new assistant principals as they are socialized into their roles.

Implications. The socialization of assistant principals has a number of implications for how they enact their work. This socialization involves "letting go of and/or reframing the skills, values, and personality traits that contributed to his teaching success but that were inconsistent with his administrative role and developing new competencies" (Armstrong, 2010, p. 711). Mertz (2006) described how new assistant principals learn by living, by example, and by reinforcement. Through the lived experiences of the position, assistant principals learn the maintenance of the organization, the total authority of the principal, and that cooperation and collaboration mean doing your job. Through the example of the principal and other assistant principals, new assistant principals learn how things are done, what is valued, and what qualities lead to success (e.g. hard work, loyalty). Through positive and negative reinforcement, new assistant principals learn the boundaries of appropriate behavior, what they can and cannot do, and how far to push. They also learn that conformity and maintaining the status quo is prized while causing and leading change is to be avoided (Mertz, 2006).

Marshall and Hooley (2006) described some unstated rules that constrain the behavior and values of assistant principals. The rules are:

Rule 1: Limit risk taking

Rule 2: Remake policy quietly

Rule 3: Avoid moral dilemmas

Rule 4: Do not display divergent values

Rule 5: Commitment is required

Rule 6: Don't get labeled a troublemaker

Rule 7: Keep disputes private

Rule 8: Cover all your bases

Rule 9: Build administrator team trust

Rule 10: Align your turf

This set of rules which assistant principals learn during socialization limits their roles and the expression of their values (Marshall & Hooley, 2006). These constraining rules are important in understanding how assistant principals enact their roles around the dilemmas they encounter. Marshall and Hooley (2006) suggested the dilemmas that assistant principals encounter revolve around four categories: authority and bureaucratic rules, supervising and evaluating teachers, helping children and solving societal ills, and pressure from parents.

Role taking and role making. In dealing with this dilemmas and constructing their new roles, assistant principals may undertake role taking and/or role making (Armstrong, 2009; Matthews & Crow, 2010). Role taking involves a replication of the dominant professional and organizational status quo (Hart, 1993). Role taking limits the ability of new assistant principals to reconstruct their roles and change the culture of schools (Armstrong, 2009). Conversely, role making involves the assistant principal being an active partner in the socialization process by reconstructing their role in the

school (Armstrong, 2009; Matthews & Crow, 2010). Content innovation is a form of role making in which assistant principals accept the traditional values but make modifications to their roles and responsibilities. Role innovation is a more radical form of role making where assistant principals mold their work to their own values and expectations (Armstrong, 2010). Socialization of assistant principals often includes both role taking and role making. The socialization of assistant principals impacts *what* and *how* they enact their important school leadership position. Since Indiana assistant principals may be required to fulfill new roles during the implementation of PL-90 (Whiteman et al., 2011), how they learn to enact these new roles may be similar to the socialization of new assistant principals.

Roles and Responsibilities

Despite the importance of the position the roles, responsibilities, and work of assistant principals is an under-researched and often overlooked area in education and school leadership literature (Cranston, Tromans, & Reugebrink, 2004; Hausman, Nebeker, McCreary, & Donldson Jr, 2002). This dearth of research is especially acute regarding high school assistant principals (Cranston *et al.*, 2004) and the assistant principal's role as an instructional leader (Celikten, 2001). The job descriptions of assistant principals are not precise (Marshall & Hooley, 2006) and the principal of the building has the greatest impact on the daily tasks that assistant principals perform (Hausman et al., 2002; Lee et al., 2009; Wong, 2009). The current scholarship on the work of assistant principals indicates that student discipline and organizational management are their primary daily tasks (Celikten, 2001; Cranston et al., 2004; Hausman et al., 2002; Lee et al., 2009). Ideally, assistant principals would like to be

more involved in instructional leadership activities and this conflict between actual and ideal roles is a source of frustration (Cranston et al., 2004; Glanz, 1994a, 1994b; Lee et al., 2009). The traditional role of the assistant principal may be changing as recent accountability reforms have led to a decreased involvement in management tasks and an increased involvement in instruction-related tasks for assistant principals (Sun, 2012).

The specific roles and responsibilities of an assistant principal are not precise (Marshall & Hooley, 2006) because there is no universal job description (Weller & Weller, 2002). The job descriptions of assistant principals are not well defined (Celikten, 2001; Lee et al., 2009) and tend to reflect what looks good on paper rather than the actual work conducted (Webb, 1995). According to Wong (2009), the difference in actual work of assistant principals across schools is a result of the flexibility required to accommodate the needs and management philosophy of the school and principal. The principal, and not the job description, is primarily responsible for defining the role of the assistant principal within a school (Armstrong, 2009; Hausman et al., 2002; Lee et al., 2009; Wong, 2009). Assistant principals are the chief assistants of principals who perform custodial, clerical, and discipline duties (Wong, 2009). Hausman et al. (2002) also indicated that the location in the hierarchy affects an assistant principal's behaviors and leadership practices. Hence, the principal and the school structure are key factors in determining the roles and responsibilities of an assistant principal. The responsibilities of an assistant principal are assigned by the building principal or other superiors resulting in variation, even within the same district and from one year to the next (Oleszewski et al., 2012).

Organizational and student management. Although there is not a consistent job description for an assistant principal, research on the work of assistant principals has

provided consistent results on the kinds of tasks that assistant principals are assigned. The primary role of assistant principals has been to maintain organizational stability through the management of student behavior. Cranston et al. (2004) found the typical assistant principal's week is dominated by student and staffing issues, management/administration, and organizational matters. Very little time is spent on educational/curriculum leadership and strategic leadership. Most assistant principals spend the majority of their day making sure that students conform to school rules through supervision and discipline while spending almost no time on instructional improvement. Celikten (2001) found almost all assistant principals were school disciplinarians and the remaining assistants were involved in discipline matters periodically. Additionally, assistant principals perform a variety of tasks most of which are not written in their job descriptions. Lee et al. (2009) described the main responsibilities of vice principals in Hong Kong as disciplining students, distributing textbooks, supervising the cafeteria, assigning lockers, and attending student activities. According to Hausman et al. (2002), Maine assistant principals devoted the largest percentage of their time on student management followed by interacting with the education hierarchy and personnel management.

Two recent dissertation studies on Indiana secondary assistant principals have found similar results. Grate (2005) found that Indiana public high school assistant principals' primary tasks were focused on supervisory and student discipline tasks. According to Scott (2011), Indiana secondary assistant principals' primary duties focused on student discipline, conflict resolution, and personal professional development. In sum, the research demonstrates that assistant principals in Indiana, the United States, and

throughout the world spend the greatest amount of their time on management tasks. Table 1 summarizes the top assistant principal duties found in the previously mentioned studies.

Table 1- *Assistant Principal Duties According to Research*

Author (year)	Sample	Assistant Principal Duties
Hausman et al. (2002)	125 APs in Maine	Student management Interactions with education hierarchy Personnel management Public relations Professional development Resource management Instructional leadership
Cranston et al. (2004)	204 Secondary APs in Queensland, Australia	Student issues Staffing issues Management/administration Operational matters Parent/community issues Educational/curriculum leadership Strategic leadership
Grate (2005)	271 Public High School APs in Indiana	School dances and activities, supervision of evening games Supervision of school in absence of principal Student discipline Supervision of cafeteria Handling complaints Student suspensions Evaluation of teachers Student attendance School policies Special arrangements at the start and close of the school year
Scott (2011)	283 Public Secondary School (9-12 and 7-12) APs in Indiana	Monitors disciplinary actions involving students to ensure the process is followed. Deals with conflicts that arise among teacher-student-parent support staff relationships. Organizes a system where by discipline problems are handled. Assumes personal responsibility for his or her own

		professional development. Cooperatively establishes procedures for developing and maintaining a high level of positive student behavior. Understands and accepts the scope of authority. Finds and develops programs to reduce absenteeism, tardiness, and behavioral problems. Selects, assists, supervises, and evaluates both certified and classified personnel. Assumes responsibility for student management procedures. Observes teachers. Provides feedback to teachers concerning their performance. Communicates effectively with parents and other school patrons to secure favorable understanding and support for the school and its programs. Participates in professional growth activities; attends professional meetings, reads professional journals, takes classes or attends seminars on relevant topics.
Sun (2012)	133 APs Elementary and Middle School in New York	Quantitative Data: Student discipline Administrative duties (paperwork) Counseling pupils Evaluation of teachers Parental conferences Instructional leadership Lunch duty School scheduling (coverages) – scheduling teachers to cover for absent regular classroom teachers Formulating goals Emergency arrangement Qualitative Data: State assessments – administering tests, collecting data, and analyzing results Teacher evaluation Instructional leadership Curriculum development

Instructional Leadership. The research demonstrates that assistant principals' time is consumed by their management of student behavior, leaving very little time to work on curriculum and instruction related tasks (Oleszewski et al., 2012). Some scholars suggest that assistant principals would like to have the time and expertise to be more involved with instructional leadership (Barnett et al., 2012; Celikten, 2001; Cranston et al., 2004; Hausman et al., 2002; Lee et al., 2009). According to Celikten (2001), a number of factors enhance the instructional leadership activities of assistant principals. Two primary factors are having (a) principals who support and encourage their assistant principals to be involved in instructional leadership and (b) access to professional development focused on instructional leadership (i.e. attending workshops, seminars, and conventions). Other instructional leadership enhancing factors cited were learning the school and community culture, quality of relationships with central office personnel, and interpersonal skills of the assistant principal. Conversely, instructional leadership activities for assistant principals were primarily inhibited by the lack of instructional leadership roles included in their job descriptions. Another inhibiting factor cited was a lack of time and resources to attend professional development activities focused on instructional leadership. The lack of time is directly related to performing a wide range of duties including student management and many other duties which are not written in a job description. Hence, the traditional role of the assistant principal is defined as a manager who maintains organizational stability and not as an instructional leader who leads improvements in student achievement and growth.

Many researchers have called for assistant principals to become more involved in instructional leadership activities (Barnett et al., 2012; Greenfield, 1985; Hausman et al.,

2002; Marshall & Hooley, 2006). A recent study by Sun (2012) found that the accountability-oriented laws like NCLB may be having an impact on the instructional leadership tasks of assistant principals. She conducted a study to "fill the gap in the literature on the roles and responsibilities of APs that may have been impacted by the accountability-driven reforms" (Sun, 2012, p. 156). Sun (2012) used the instrument designed by Glanz (1994b) to survey elementary and middle school assistant principals in New York State public schools in "today's environment of accountability-oriented educational reforms" (p. 157). Sun (2012) then compared the results from 1994 to her results in 2010. In 1994, the top 5 actual duties for assistant principals were student discipline, lunch duty, school scheduling, ordering textbooks, and parental conferences (Glanz, 1994b). In 2010, the top 5 actual duties for assistant principals were student discipline, administrative duties (paperwork), counseling pupils, evaluation of teachers, and parental conferences. Sun (2012) noted that instructional leadership had the greatest increase of the twenty-five duties from which to choose and the degree of the assistant principals' involvement in management tasks decreased while their involvement in instruction-related tasks increased. Additionally, Sun (2012) conducted follow-up interviews with ten assistant principals in the original sample to investigate the impacts of accountability-driven reforms not measured on Glanz's ranking questionnaire. Through these interviews, the assistant principals reported spending a great amount of time on state assessments, including "administering tests, collecting data, and analyzing results" (Sun, 2012, p. 168). Sun (2012) concluded that APs' job tasks were changing to become more aligned with the requirements of NCLB.

Demographic Differences. Many studies have attempted to find differences in the assistant principal roles and responsibilities based upon differences in personal and school characteristics. Gender differences concerning assistant principals' work are common in the research. Hausman et al. (2002) found that females spent more time on instructional leadership, professional development, and personnel management as they focused more on instruction and children and less on bureaucratic management. Barnett et al. (2012) also found that female assistant principals were more involved in instructional leadership than their male counterparts. Loder and Spillane (2005) examined the role conflict and role discontinuity of US women school administrators. They found that women experienced role conflict as they moved away from intimate relationships with children where they could focus on instruction to more public positions where relationships were compartmentalized and they were responsible for managerial and human resources tasks. To deal with this conflict, women administrators focused on interpersonal and instructional leadership by becoming teachers of teachers, teaching part-time, staying connected to students, doing what was "good for kids" and using an egalitarian leadership approach. Rusch and Marshall (2006) found that female leadership is more collegial, more focused on instruction and children, more inclusive, and less concerned with politics and bureaucracy. Other researchers have found no differences between male and female school administrators. In a study of school administrators in the US and Singapore, Bolman and Deal (1992) found the men and women in comparable positions were very similar to one another. Mertz and McNeely (1998) examined the experiences of two female high school assistant principals and found that these women did what all principals are reported to do. The women administrators

expressed commitment to instructional leadership but spent the majority of their time completing administrative tasks.

Other differences in the work of assistant principals have been found to be related to other personal and school demographic differences. More experienced assistant principals described how they shifted from being task oriented to being people oriented (Armstrong, 2010). Increased teaching experience was found to have a positive impact on the assistant principals' success in instructional leadership (Barnett et al., 2012; Hausman et al., 2002). Enhanced instructional leadership activities were attributed to assistant principals who had good classroom discipline as teachers (Celikten, 2001). Celikten (2001) also found that experience as an assistant principal enhanced instructional leadership. However, Barnett et al. (2012) found that assistant principals with more than three years of assistant principal experience were more challenged by instructional leadership tasks than their less experienced counterparts.

Some school characteristics were found to be related to differences in the work of assistant principals in Indiana. Grate (2005) found that assistant principals in larger schools had a greater degree of involvement in curriculum and instruction activities. She also found these large school assistant principals were more involved with student management, discipline, and attendance (Grate, 2005). Assistant principals in rural schools are more involved in pupil management than their counterparts in urban and suburban schools (Scott, 2011). Assistant principals in urban settings experience greater frustration than other assistant principals due to external pressures in implementing policies that disadvantage minority populations (Armstrong, 2010). Demographic factors, especially the assistant principal's gender, impact the work of assistant principals.

Gaps in the Assistant Principal Literature

"[S]tudies are needed now to update and enhance our appreciation of the complex work performed by assistant principals" (Marshall & Hooley, 2006, p. 52). The existing research about assistant principals focuses on roles and responsibilities (Celikten, 2001; Hausman *et al.,* 2002) and has emphasized *what* an assistant principal does rather than on *how* assistant principals understand and enact their work. Additionally, most of the research is done with simple surveys that "do not adequately capture the essence of the assistant principalship" (Marshall & Hooley, 2006, p. 49). The qualitative phase of the Sun (2012) mixed methods study consisted of in-depth interviews with ten of the assistant principals. Those interviews identified some duties of assistant principals that were not included in the Glanz (1994b) instrument. Specifically noted by the assistant principals in 2010 was the great amount of time that they spent administering state assessments, collecting data, and analyzing results of tests. These interviews revealed that assistant principals' job tasks have been "more or less realigned by NCLB requirements" (Sun, 2012, p. 169). Now that RTT is being implemented, one could conclude that the duties of assistant principals are being realigned again. Marshall and Hooley (2006) suggested more field and case studies are needed to develop a more fruitful way of understanding the work of assistant principals. Narratives of assistant principals can be used to describe the diversity and similarity among the lived experiences of the assistant principals, go to the core of ethical dilemmas they experience, deal with the complexities of job, and articulate their values and assumptions (Armstrong, 2009). "Assistant principals' narratives embody the conflicted nature of

educational leadership and they add color, depth, breadth, and texture to the educational topography" (Armstrong, 2009, p. 12).

Summary and Implications

This literature review is intended to be a focused review of teacher evaluations, instructional leadership, and assistant principals. To identify appropriate sources, searches were conducted using multiple databases and search engines. Many search terms were entered for each topic and topics were combined to find the best sources. Articles from peer-reviewed journals and books by noted authors were selected based upon their relevance this study.

The review of teacher evaluation literature identified disagreement among researchers concerning the validity and reliability of teacher evaluations. The role of the principal is central to the teacher evaluation process and the new high-stakes teacher evaluations will require a greater time commitment and increase emphasis on instructional leadership. Administrators in the Indiana pilot study reported spending less time on administrative and management duties to accommodate the additional time dedicated to instructional leadership. The instructional leadership literature reviewed focused on the core practices of successful school leadership proposed by Leithwood and his colleagues. The four categories are setting directions, developing people, refining and aligning the organization, and improving the teaching and learning program. These categories are broken into 14 specific practices. The enactment of these practices varies by context. Primary and secondary school leaders differ in their enactment. Enactment also varies based upon the student achievement levels in the schools. A wealth of empirical evidence supports this framework of instructional leadership. The core

practices framework is further justified by comparing it with other empirically-based instructional leadership frameworks.

Assistant principals are critical leaders who comprise a large portion of the school administrative workforce. Assistant principals are socialized into new roles and responsibilities by the school stakeholders, especially the principal. Assistant principals learn the unstated rules that constrain their roles and expressions of their values. Assistant principals are active participants in their socialization through role taking and role making behaviors. Traditionally, the work of assistant principals has focused on organizational and student management with little time for instructional leadership. Most assistant principals spend the majority of their day making sure that students conform to school rules through supervision and discipline. Instructional leadership roles and responsibilities are scarce but seem to be increasing as school accountability increases.

The literature on teacher evaluation, instructional leadership, and work of assistant principals contain gaps that can be addressed by this study of the impact of high-stakes teacher evaluation laws on the work of Indiana high school assistant principals. Goe et al. (2011) recommended conducting research during the implementation of the new high-stakes teacher evaluation laws. The initial research on these new laws indicates that building level administrators need to increase their time commitment to teacher evaluations and instructional leadership. Current research on instructional leadership is focused almost exclusively on principals (Leithwood, 2007) and their leadership practices (Leithwood & Seashore-Louis, 2012). To increase scholarship on instructional leaders, studies are needed that focus on other leaders (e.g., assistant principals). The studies should address *what* and *how* instructional leadership is enacted. There is a scarcity of

research on assistant principals, especially at the high school level (Cranston et al., 2004). The existing research about assistant principals focuses on roles and responsibilities (Celikten, 2001; Hausman *et al.*, 2002) and has emphasized *what* an assistant principal does rather than on *how* assistant principals understand and enact their work. Sun (2012) found that assistant principals' duties have changed to be more aligned with requirements of NCLB. Research studying the impact of RTT on the work of assistant principals can increase our understanding of assistant principals' work. Therefore, this study addressed three gaps in research: (a) the impact of high-stakes educator accountability laws on the work of assistant principals, (b) instructional leadership roles and responsibilities of assistant principals, (c) the unique role of high school assistant principals, and (d) *what* and *how* assistant principals enact their roles and responsibilities.

Chapter 3: Methodology

In the summer of 2011, the researcher was hired to become an assistant principal at a large Indianapolis suburban high school. Previously, he had nearly twenty years of experience as a teacher, guidance counselor, and guidance director. He had also been a coach for many years including stints as head varsity coach for boys and girls in track, cross country, and basketball. Additionally, the researcher had been taking classes in the Indiana University doctoral program in educational leadership for over two years. He thought he was prepared for anything. The researcher quickly realized that he was not fully prepared for his new roles and responsibilities.

Once the school year started, the researcher was quickly overwhelmed by the job of being a high school assistant principal. He was expected to be an expert in many areas in which he had little or no expertise. He was expected to know everything about student discipline, school law, and best teaching practices and state standards in every subject. Teachers, students, parents, and secretaries came to him as the expert on school policies, procedures, and practices. Unlike teachers, there was no induction program for new administrators. The researcher was not trained on the school's technology programs; he was just expected to use them. He was not educated on the student handbook and other school policies; he was just expected to enforce and implement them. On top of all of these dilemmas, he was spending three hours a day supervising the cafeterias and hallways. When the researcher entered school administration, he had planned to be an instructional leader but he found that he did not have the time to help teachers grow and develop. Through these experiences, the researcher struggled to understand and make meaning of his work.

Because of this struggle, the researcher began to focus his doctoral studies on the work of assistant principals. The first thing that he learned is the assistant principalship is largely ignored by school leadership literature (Cranston et al., 2004; Hausman et al., 2002; Sun, 2012). Once he found research on the assistant principalship, he discovered that his experiences were very similar to other assistant principals. School stakeholders and their expectations had great influence on the socialization of assistant principals (Armstrong, 2009; Marshall & Hooley, 2006). The work of assistant principals was dominated with student discipline and organizational management (Celikten, 2001; Cranston et al., 2004; Hausman et al., 2002). Assistant principals wanted to be more involved in instructional leadership but did not have time to devote to it (Barnett et al., 2012; Hausman et al., 2002; Oleszewski et al., 2012). After exploring the literature on assistant principals, the researcher felt less overwhelmed and was better able to make meaning of his work.

In the spring of 2012 as he was beginning to understand his work as a high school assistant principal, conversations about Indiana's new educator evaluation law began to dominate communication with other school administrators. Many schools were required to begin implementing the new law for the following school year and the administrators were concerned about the impact on their work. The researcher's high school was not required to begin implementation until 2014-15 because teacher evaluations were a part of the collective bargaining agreement which was in effect until then. Despite having additional time before implementing PL-90, the researcher still wondered what impact the new law would have on his work. He wondered how the implementation of the PL-90 would impact his current roles and responsibilities. He wondered about the law's

impact on his desire to become more involved in instructional leadership. He wondered how he would understand and make meaning of his role in the context of this new law. He wondered how Indiana high school assistant principals would perceive the law and its impact on their work. These musings led to this research study.

At the same time that he was completing his dissertation proposal, the researcher was hired as the principal at another suburban Indianapolis high school beginning with the 2013-14 school year. This experience provided him with another perspective on the work of high school assistant principals. As he was interviewing assistant principals for this study, the researcher was also observing his two assistant principals working tirelessly to complete their student and organizational management roles. Even though they were not implementing PL-90, he watched his assistant principals struggle to expand their instructional roles by conducting more classroom observations in preparation for its implementation in 2014-15. These experiences reinforced his conviction about the importance of this study.

Research Questions

This study focused on the work experiences of Indiana high school assistant principals from their perspective. It explored the impact of the implementation of PL-90 on their work based on the following research questions.

1. How did Indiana high school assistant principals perceive the impact of PL-90 on their work? Specifically, how did they perceive the impact of PL-90 in relation to:
    a. the requirements of PL-90,
    b. traditional assistant principal roles and responsibilities, and

c. their role as instructional leaders?

2. What kinds of factors enabled or constrained the different impacts of PL-90 on the work of Indiana high school assistant principals?

Interpretivist Paradigm

In this study of the work of Indiana high school assistant principals and the impact of the implementation of PL-90, an interpretive paradigm was utilized. Interpretivism assumes reality is multiple and varied based upon the subjective meanings that individuals assign to their experiences (Creswell, 2009; Merriam, 2009). The interpretivist reality is subjectively constructed as facts and values are intertwined (Walsham, 1995). These subjective meanings are socially and historically negotiated (Creswell, 2009). The aim of interpretive research is to explore the participant's experience of an event rather than attempting to discover an objective truth (Smith & Osborn, 2003). Interpretivist research attempts to understand phenomena through the meanings participants assign to the phenomena within particular cultural and historical contexts (Crotty, 1998; Darke, Shanks, & Broadbent, 1998). From an interpretivist paradigm, "the researcher is trying to make sense of the participants trying to make sense of their world" (Smith & Osborn, 2003, p. 53).

In this study, the reality being examined was the perceptions and meanings that Indiana high school assistant principals were subjectively constructing about their work from their experiences, values, and beliefs. These perceptions and meanings of their work were negotiated within the social context of the individual assistant principals and historically-located during the implementation of Indiana's new high-stakes educator evaluation law. The work of Indiana high school assistant principals during the

implementation of PL-90 was multi-faceted and could be examined from many perspectives. However, this study focused on the assistant principals' understanding of the reality of their own work.

Sequential Explanatory Design

This study of the work of Indiana high school assistant principals utilized a mixed-methods sequential explanatory design. Johnson, Onwuegbuzie, and Turner (2007) defined mixed methods research as

> the type of research in which a researcher or team of researchers combines elements of qualitative and quantitative approaches (e.g. use of qualitative and quantitative viewpoints, data collection, analysis, inference techniques) for the broad purposes of breadth and depth of understanding and corroboration. (p. 123)

Mixed methods research involves collecting, analyzing, and integrating or "mixing" quantitative and qualitative data in a research study with the central premise of gaining a better understanding of the research problem than either approach can provide alone (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011; Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2009). Quantitative research is useful for studying large numbers of people and generalizing findings but may not reflect local understanding of problems especially if the problem is complex. Qualitative research provides individual case data that can be rich in detail but the findings are not as generalizable (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004). The goal of mixed method research is to "draw from the strengths and minimize the weaknesses of both [quantitative and qualitative research]" (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004, pp. 14-15). Ivankova et al. (2006) recommended using a mixed methods design when one method is not sufficient to capture the details of complex situations, such as the work of high school assistant principals during of the implementation of high-stakes educator accountability laws.

Specifically, a sequential explanatory design is a mixed-method research design in which the collection and analysis of quantitative data precedes the collection and analysis of qualitative data. The quantitative phase of the study explored the problem broadly and provided information for the design of the qualitative phase. The qualitative phase explained, or elaborated, on the quantitative results by exploring the viewpoints of selected participants in greater depth. The quantitative and qualitative data were collected and analyzed separately but were integrated as the last step of a sequential explanatory design (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011; Ivankova et al., 2006). A sequential explanatory design not only obtained quantitative data and their analysis but also explained the quantitative results in more detail by focusing on participant perspectives. This design is particularly useful when little is known about the structures behind the trends found in the quantitative data and their analysis (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011). The rationale for using the approach to study the work of Indiana high school assistant principals during the implementation of PL-90 was that very little was known about the exact impact of high-stakes evaluation on the work of administrators (Goe et al., 2011).

In the quantitative phase of this study, the self-developed 2013 Indiana High School Assistant Principal Survey (See Appendix A) was sent to all Indiana high school assistant principals to explore the work of Indiana high school assistant principals specifically related to the requirements of PL-90, traditional assistant principal responsibilities, and instructional leadership as defined by the core practices of successful school leadership. The survey also addressed the impact of the implementation of PL-90 on these leadership practices and actions. This survey data provided a broad understanding of the work of Indiana high school assistant principals during the

implementation of PL-90. The qualitative phase of this study consisted of two interviews with each of six stratified-selected participants from the first, quantitative phase. The semi-structured interviews were conducted to explain and elaborate on the quantitative data and their analysis. An interview guide (See Appendix B) was utilized for both interviews with each participant. The second interview included member checking of the researcher's interpretations of the first interview and questions to elaborate on the findings of the quantitative phase and the first round of interviews. After the quantitative and qualitative data were analyzed separately, the results of both phases were integrated. Therefore, the quantitative data and results provided a general understanding of the research problem, while the qualitative data and results explained those statistical results by exploring the selected participants' views of their work and implementing PL-90.

Quantitative Phase

The purpose of the quantitative phase of this study was to develop a general understanding of the work of Indiana high school assistant principals and the impact of the implementation of PL-90 on that work. A quantitative survey was utilized because surveys are the best method to understand the views of the entire population (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011). Survey data provide a quantitative description of attitudes and opinions of the population (Creswell, 2009). The survey for this study was a self-developed questionnaire designed specifically to answer the research questions. The development of the survey employed Dillman's (2000) Tailored Design method. The Tailored Design method is intended to reduce survey error by creating respondent trust, increasing rewards and decreasing costs for respondents, and accounting for the features of the survey situation (Dillman, 2000). The quantitative data was analyzed using

descriptive statistics, t-tests, and multiple linear regression analyses to evaluate the participants' perceptions of their work and the implementation of high-stakes educator evaluations.

Participants

The selection of participants for the survey questionnaire reduced error by surveying the entire population rather than a sample. Using a census reduced sampling error and coverage error. Sampling error results from attempting to survey only some and not all participants in the population. Coverage error occurs when a group from the population is not included in the sample (Dillman, 2000). A coverage error could have occurred if private high school assistant principals were not included. There were 421 high school assistant principals working in Indiana's 280 high schools in 2012-13. The 280 Indiana high schools were identified from the school's receiving grades from the IDOE in the fall of 2012. To select the assistant principals, each of the 280 high schools' websites was searched for the individual(s) listed as assistant principal, vice principal, or associate principal. Individuals with these titles were chosen because the current scholarship uses these terms for assistant principals in American schools. Individuals listed as assistant principal/athletic director were not be included because, from the researcher's personal experience, these individuals' roles and responsibilities are focused on athletics and not on the traditional roles and responsibilities of assistant principals. Deans were also not included because, from personal experience, their duties are focused solely on student management and they are not involved with instructional leadership. Emails were located on the school websites for contacting participants. With a population of less than 500, surveying the population was manageable and preferred.

Data Collection

The survey instrument for this study was an internet-based survey for which the URL address was emailed to each participant. The survey consisted of four sections. The first section consisted of all participants identifying their level of involvement in 40 assistant principal leadership practices and actions. In the second section, participants were asked to classify how their involvement in the same 40 assistant principal leadership practices and actions changed because of the implementation of PL-90. Only assistant principals who implemented PL-90 during 2012-13 and who had been in the same assistant principal position for at least two years were able to identify the impact of the implementation of their specific job. Therefore, only these participants answered these questions in this section. The second section also included a question about how the implementation affected their job satisfaction and an open-ended question about the greatest impact that the implementation of PL-90 had on their work as high school assistant principals. The third section of the questionnaire included demographic information about the assistant principals, their high schools, and their schools' implementation of PL-90. The fourth section invited participants to volunteer for participation in the qualitative phase of this study.

The questionnaire design and the implementation process were developed to create trust and increase the expectations of increased rewards and decreased costs for the respondent. Designing the questionnaire and implementation process with these considerations reduced the probability of measurement error and nonresponse error. Measurement error results from poor question wording or questions leading to inaccurate

answers (Dillman, 2000). Therefore, measurement error was addressed by the design of each question and the questionnaire as a whole.

Survey instrument. The survey instrument for this study was a self-developed questionnaire designed to answer the research questions. The list of leadership practices and actions was developed from (a) the requirements listed in PL-90, (b) the literature on the core practices of successful school leadership, and (c) the scholarship on the work of assistant principals. After initial development of the survey instrument, it was pretested and modified accordingly. Emails were sent to each of the participants inviting them to participate by accessing the internet-based survey via the attached URL.

Leadership practices and actions. The first two sections of the survey instrument were designed to measure the participants' perceptions of their work related to PL-90, instructional leadership, and traditional assistant principal duties. A list of 40 leadership practices and actions was developed to be utilized for this proposed study. Seven leadership practices and actions were developed based upon the requirements of PL-90. Twenty-five leadership practices and actions were developed based upon the works by Leithwood and Seashore-Louis (2012) and Day et al. (2011). These 25 leadership practices and actions were developed from the four main categories of the core practices of successful school leaders. Setting directions, developing people, and refining and aligning the organization were each comprised of 6 leadership practices. There were seven leadership actions related to improving the teaching and learning program. Of these 25 practices based upon the core practices of successful school leaders, three were also included in the requirements of PL-90. Finally, there were 11 leadership practices related to traditional assistant principals based upon recent scholarship.

The leadership practices and actions related to PL-90 were

- calculating student achievement and growth data for individual teachers;
- developing methods to measure student growth for certificated employees;
- assisting in the development of locally-developed assessments and other test measures for use in teacher evaluations;
- conducting lesson-length classroom observations;
- conducting short classroom observations (less than 15 minutes);
- providing constructive feedback to teachers after observations; and
- using annual performance evaluation to designate each certified employee as highly effective, effective, improvement necessary, or ineffective.

The instructional leadership practices and actions were divided into the four categories of successful school leadership: setting directions, developing people, refining and aligning the organization, and improving the teacher and learning program (Day et al., 2011; Leithwood & Seashore-Louis, 2012). The leadership practices and actions in these books were slightly modified for consistency of wording and for American rather than English or Canadian terminology (e.g. students instead of pupils). The leadership practices and actions for setting directions were

- communicating to all stakeholders a sense of purpose and vision for the school;
- helping to clarify the relationship between the school's vision and improvement initiatives;
- making explicit reference to school goals when making decisions;
- demonstrating high expectations for staff's work with all students;
- demonstrating high expectations for student behavior; and

- encouraging staff to assume responsibility for achieving the school's vision and goals.

The leadership practices and actions for developing people were

- recognizing the accomplishments of individual staff members;
- responding to individual staff member's expertise and needs;
- providing staff individual support to improve their teaching practices;
- encouraging staff to pursue their own goals for professional learning;
- helping staff members to reflect on the impact of instructional practices on student learning; and
- leading discussions about classroom practices.

The leadership practices for refining and aligning the organization were

- engaging teachers in decision-making that affects their instructional work;
- creating a welcoming environment for parents and community members;
- developing and maintaining connections with state policymakers;
- cultivating connections with district leaders and other school leaders;
- building community support for school's improvement initiatives; and
- engaging parents in the school's improvement efforts.

The leadership practices and actions related to improving the teaching and learning program were

- conducting lesson-length classroom observations;
- conducting short classroom observations (less than 15 minutes);
- providing constructive feedback to teachers after observations;
- encouraging staff to use data in their work;

- participating in the hiring of new staff members;
- collaborating with staff during student data collection and analysis; and
- buffering teachers from distractions to their teaching.

These 25 leadership practices and actions were used to evaluate the assistant principals' perceptions of their instructional leadership. Three of the statements were also included in the requirements of PL-90. They were

- conducting lesson-length classroom observations;
- conducting short classroom observations (less than 15 minutes); and
- providing constructive feedback to teachers after observations.

These practices were included in the analysis of both PL-90 and instructional leadership.

The list of traditional assistant principal duties was developed by examining the top assistant principal duties listed in five recent studies: Hausman et al. (2002), Cranston et al. (2004), Grate (2005), Scott (2011), and Sun (2012). The findings of the studies were combined then reworded for consistency across the entire list of leadership practices and actions. The traditional assistant principal duties included in the survey were

- disciplining students who violate school rules;
- supervising students during the school day (e.g. passing periods, lunch);
- supervising students after school hours (e.g. extracurricular activities, dances);
- monitoring student attendance and enforce school attendance policies;
- dealing with conflicts that arise among teacher-student-parent-support staff;
- participating in special education conferences;
- organizing and administering standardized tests (e.g. Core 40 ECA, AP, PSAT);
- collecting student testing data and analyzing results;

- completing administrative paperwork;
- coordinating use of school facilities; and
- coordinating student clubs and activities.

These six lists were combined into the 40 leadership practices and actions to be measured in the first two sections of the 2013 Indiana High School Assistant Principal Survey.

First section. The first section of the survey was designed to examine Indiana high school assistant principals' perceptions of their involvement with each of the 40 leadership practices and actions. Participants were asked to identify the extent to which they were involved in each assistant principal leadership practice or action on a 5-point Likert type scale: *not at all*, *very little*, *somewhat*, *very*, and *significantly*. People are unable to recall the amount of time that they spent on behaviors in the past (Dillman, 2000) and usually estimate when responding to such questions (Bradburn, Sudman, & Wansink, 2004). Therefore, the survey did not ask for exact amounts of times. Instead, participants were asked to rank their extent of involvement from "not at all" to "significantly." Utilizing ordered response categories will lead to less measurement error than asking respondents to calculate the amount of time they were involved with each leadership practice or action (Dillman, 2000).

Second section. The second section of the survey was designed to explore the assistant principals' perceptions of the impact of the implementation of PL-90 on the same 40 leadership practices and actions. Because this section specifically addresses the implementation of PL-90, only assistant principals' schools who implemented the law in 2012-13 were asked to answer. Since the questions address the change in level of involvement from before 2012-13 to during 2012-13, only assistant principals who were

in the same position for two or more years were included. Therefore, only assistant principals who implemented PL-90 in 2012-13 and were in the same assistant principal position for at least two years were asked to complete the second section. This section asked these assistant principals to rate how their level of involvement in each of the assistant principal leadership practices and actions changed as a result of the implementation of PL-90. They rated their perceived amount of change on a 5-point Likert type scale: *significantly less involved, somewhat less involved, no change in involvement, somewhat more involved,* and *significantly more involved*. Additionally, these assistant principals were asked to rank the impact of the implementation of PL-90 on their job satisfaction on a 5-point Likert type scale: *significantly less satisfied, somewhat less satisfied, no change in satisfaction, somewhat more satisfied,* and *significantly more satisfied*. They were also asked to briefly explain the greatest impact that PL-90 had on their work as high school assistant principals. The second section allowed participants to express their perceptions of the impact of PL-90 on their assistant principal work.

Third section. The third section of the survey was designed to provide information needed to answer the second research question concerning the factors related to the impact of the implementation of PL-90. From the literature on assistant principals, a number of demographic differences have been found to be related to the work of assistant principals. In a number of studies, the gender of the assistant principal has been found to influence their roles and responsibilities. Gender differences have been found to be related to instructional leadership (Barnett et al., 2012; Hausman et al., 2002), role conflict and role discontinuity (Loder & Spillane, 2005), and collegial relationships

(Rusch & Marshall, 2006). Other personal demographic differences have been found to be related to administrative experience (Armstrong, 2010; Barnett et al., 2012; Celikten, 2001) and teaching experience (Barnett et al., 2012; Hausman et al., 2002). School characteristics that have been found to affect the work of assistant principals include school size (Grate, 2005) and location (Armstrong, 2010; Scott, 2011). This study explored these demographic differences in relation to the implementation of PL-90. Therefore, the third section asked the participants to identify these personal and school demographic characteristics for the purpose of data analysis.

Survey pretest. To reduce measurement and nonresponse error, a pretest of the survey was conducted and peer feedback was solicited. Five current building-level administrators were asked to take the survey and provide feedback. The administrators were two high school principals, one middle school principal, and two middle school assistant principals. Their feedback detailed changes that were needed to make the instrument clearer and more user-friendly. The transition between the first and second section caused three of participants to become confused. Therefore, the directions to the section were modified to improve clarity. Two participants also suggested more detailed explanation of the second phase of the study before they would volunteer. After directions were modified, member checking was completed to ensure the changes addressed the initial concerns. The survey took respondents approximately 10 minutes to complete.

Survey implementation. The processes for recruiting participants, obtaining consent, and collecting data were in full compliance with the requirements of the Indiana University Institutional Review Board. Recruitment materials and study information

sheets can be found in Appendix D. For the quantitative phase of this study, all participants were sent an email inviting them to participate. The email with a link to the survey was written to increase response rate by explaining the request, why the participants were selected, usefulness of the survey, and confidentiality. The email also included information about Indiana University's involvement in the study and how to address questions or concerns. Finally, the email included a thank you to the respondents. This format of invitation was intended to establish trust and increase the participants' expectations for rewards and costs (Dillman, 2000). Three follow-up emails were sent to assistant principals who had not yet completed the survey.

Data Analysis

The analysis of the quantitative data for this study utilized descriptive statistics, t-tests, and multiple linear regression analyses. Descriptive statistics included using tables, graphs, means, and standard deviations to understand the data, reveal relationships and patterns, and to communicate results (Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2009). Means and standard deviations were calculated for the responses to the first two sections. In addition to calculating the means and standard deviations for each leadership practice or action in the first two sections, means and standard deviations were calculated for seven groups of responses. The groups were (1) requirements of PL-90, (2) traditional assistant principal roles and responsibilities, (3) total instructional leadership, (4) setting directions, (5) developing people, (6) refining and aligning the organization, and (7) improving the teaching and learning program. The leadership practices and actions that correspond to each group were delineated in the quantitative data collection section of this methodology chapter. The total instructional leadership group was composed of all the leadership

practices and actions for setting directions, developing people, refining and aligning the organization, and improving the teaching and learning program. Multiple linear regression analyses were used to test for significance of differences while controlling for other differences. For example, multiple linear regression analysis was used to determine if there was a difference related to various factors enabling or constraining the implementation of PL-90. For the third section, frequency tables were utilized. All the data analysis was conducted for the purpose of answering the two research questions.

Research question #1. To understand how Indiana high school assistant principals perceived the impact of the implementation of PL-90 on their work, the first two sections of the survey were used. The first section, which examined the assistant principals' perceived level of involvement, was utilized in multiple ways. First, mean scores and standard deviations were calculated for each leadership practice and action for assistant principals who were implementing PL-90 and assistant principals who were not implementing PL-90 during 2012-13. The mean scores for each group were ranked from the highest to the lowest score. Additionally, mean scores and standard deviations for both of these groups were calculated for the three leadership categories (PL-90 requirements, traditional assistant principal roles and responsibilities, and total instructional leadership) and the four core practices of successful school leadership (setting directions, developing people, refining and aligning the organization, and improving the teaching and learning program). Next, the ranked lists of mean scores were compared to identify differences between the perceived levels of involvement between assistant principals who were implementing PL-90 and assistant principal who were not implementing PL-90. To determine if the differences in mean scores between

assistant principals implementing and not implementing were statistically-significant t-tests were conducted on each of the leadership categories and core practices of successful school leadership. To determine if significant differences existed while controlling for demographic variables, the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) was used to run multiple linear regression analyses. Linear regression analyses were conducted for each of the three leadership categories and the four core practices of successful school leadership.

The results of the second section survey were also used to examine the perceived impact of the implementation of PL-90 on the work of Indiana high school assistant principals. The second section explored the perceived changes in level of involvement for assistant principals who were implementing PL-90 during 2012-13 and were in the same position for at least two years. Means and standard deviations were calculated for each of the 40 leadership practices and actions, the three leadership categories, and the four core practices of successful school leadership. Means of the leadership practices and actions were then ranked from the highest mean score to the lowest. For each of the three leadership categories (PL-90 requirements, traditional assistant principal roles and responsibilities, and total instructional leadership) and the four core practices of successful school leadership (setting directions, developing people, refining and aligning the organization, and improving the teaching and learning program), graphs were created to examine the distribution of mean scores. Additionally, the distribution of responses for each leadership practice and action within in each leadership category and core practice were examined.

In addition to identifying their perceived change in involvement for each of the 40 leadership practices and actions, assistant principals answering the second section of the survey were asked to rate the impact of the implementation of PL-90 on their job satisfaction. These data were displayed in a table for analysis. The assistant principals who were implementing PL-90 and had been in the same position for at least two years were also asked to describe the greatest impact that the implementation had on their work. Through careful reading and rereading of the responses, initial themes and categories were developed (Debray, 2005). As suggested by Merriam (2009), the categories were responsive to the research questions, exhaustive, and mutually exclusive. Each phrase within each open response was analyzed and placed within one of these categories. Then, the researcher counted the number of respondents who included each category in their description. Therefore, the first and second sections of the survey were utilized to analyze the quantitative data in answering the first research question about the assistant principals' perceived impact of the implementation of PL-90.

Research question #2. To understand what kinds of factors enable or constrain the different impacts of PL-90 on the work of Indiana high school assistant principals, multiple linear regression analyses were conducted using the demographic data from the third section of the survey. Using the responses to the second section of the survey, linear regression analyses with SPSS were used to determine which demographic characteristic(s) had a statistically significant impact for each of the three leadership categories and the four core practices of successful school leadership. These analyses were used to explore what kinds of factors enable or constrain the impacts of PL-90 on the work of Indiana high school assistant principals.

First Integration of Phases

The first integration of quantitative and qualitative phases occurred when the quantitative data informed the qualitative phase (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011). The quantitative data informed the purposeful selection of qualitative participants (Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2009). The quantitative data results also informed the development of interview protocols by highlighting areas that needed further elaboration or explanation (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011). Therefore, the results of the quantitative phase of this study informed the stratified sampling selection of interviewees and the interview protocols.

Qualitative Phase

The purpose of the qualitative phase of this study was to explain and elaborate on the quantitative results by exploring the viewpoints of selected participants in greater depth. The qualitative data and analysis explained the quantitative results in more detail by focusing on participant perspectives (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011). Interviews were the data source for this phase because they are the best method through which an outside researcher can access the interpretations that participants assign to actions and events which have taken place (Walsham, 1995). For this study, two interviews were conducted with each of the six stratified-selected participants. These semi-structured interviews explored each participant's perception of the impact of PL-90 on their work to explain and elaborate on the quantitative data and their analysis. The interviews utilized an interview guide (See Appendix B). The first interview consisted of questions developed to answer the research questions by exploring the interviewees' personal and school characteristics and exploring the assistant principals' experiences while

implementing PL-90. The second interview consisted of questions for member checking of the researcher's interpretations of the quantitative data and the first interview. Additionally, the participants were asked questions to elaborate on these initial findings.

In the qualitative phase of this study, data collection and analysis occurred together (Marshall & Rossman, 2010; Merriam, 2009). Beginning with the first interview and continuing throughout the qualitative phase, the researcher made notes in the margins and summarized his thoughts and reflections as he read and reread each transcript (Merriam, 2009). As the interviews progressed, he developed categories from the initial themes, patterns, and clusters that were related to the words and metaphors called to mind by the assistant principals (Marshall & Rossman, 2010). He searched the data to confirm or disconfirm these categories (Creswell & Miller, 2000). Member checking and an audit trail will be utilized to increase validity for this phase (Marshall & Rossman, 2010).

Participants

The selection of the participants for the qualitative phase of this study was informed by the quantitative phase (Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2009) and by scholarship on the work of assistant principals. Sampling began with the selection of two dimensions of factors that demonstrate differences between groups. Based upon previous scholarship on the work of assistant principals, gender was the first dimension selected because gender differences are common in the research on the work of assistant principals. The second dimension selected was school size because differences in the work of high school assistant principals have been found to be related to school size. Moreover, initial analysis of the quantitative data indicated that gender and school size were personal and

school characteristics that may have impacted the implementation of PL-90. Strata were created by combining the two dimensions (Teddlie & Yu, 2007). Six strata were utilized using gender and school size:

- female and 1,000 or fewer students,
- male and 1,000 or fewer students,
- female and 1,001-2,000 students,
- male and 1,001-2,000 students,
- female and over 2,000 students, and
- male and over 2,000 students.

One participant was selected from each stratum for a total of six interviewees. Participants who were likely to provide in-depth information addressing the research questions were selected (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011; Marshall & Rossman, 2010; Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2009). The responses to the open-ended question on the 2013 Indiana High School Assistant Principal Survey was used to identify participants in each stratum who were likely to provide the rich narratives desired for this study. Respondents who directly addressed the research questions in a deep, rich manner were identified as candidates for stratified sampling selection of interviewees.

The processes for obtaining consent from the participants and data collection were in full compliance with the requirements of the IU Institutional Review Board, including that participation was voluntary and that participants were allowed to withdraw at any time for any reason. After potential participants were selected, they were contacted by phone inviting them to participate and explaining the study purpose, procedures for the study, confidentiality procedures, and voluntary nature of the study. When they agreed to

participate, the interviews were emailed a copy of the Study Information Sheet for Qualitative Phase (See Appendix D). The researcher also reviewed this information before beginning each interview.

Data Collection

Data collection instrument. In qualitative research, the researcher is the data collection instrument (Marshall & Rossman, 2010). As a former an Indiana high school assistant principal and a high school principal with two assistant principals, the researcher was very close to this research topic. His experiences and beliefs about the high school assistant principalship and high-stakes teacher evaluations could affect his interpretations during this study. He was cognizant of this positionality during the interviews and used appropriate data analysis techniques to ensure that his experiences and beliefs did not influence findings. The researcher did not interview anyone who worked in the same school as he did and he avoided selecting friends from other schools. In addition to positionality, the interviewer addressed ethical considerations, interpersonal considerations, and interviewer-participant compatibility.

Ethical Considerations. Ethical considerations must be addressed by the researcher because the success of qualitative research is often dependent upon the interpersonal skills of the researcher (Marshall & Rossman, 2010). The most important of all interpersonal considerations is guaranteeing participant confidentiality. It is so important to guarantee confidentiality that it is included in consent forms (Weiss, 1995). However, the ethical responsibility does not end with protection of participant confidentiality. The ethical responsibilities of the researcher must be grounded in respect for persons, beneficence, and justice (Marshall & Rossman, 2010). The respect for

persons centers on the fact that the researcher does not use the participants as a means to an end. Therefore, the researcher respected their right to privacy, confidentiality, and participation (or non-participation). The reporting was written in a way that also respects these rights. Beneficence is manifested in the researcher doing whatever s/he can reasonably do to assure that participants are not harmed by participating in the study. This would include not reporting anything that could cause the participant to lose her/his job. Finally, respect for justice refers to consideration for who does and does not benefit from the study. The researcher considered the ethical principles of respect for persons, beneficence, and justice when developing the research proposal, designing the informed consent form, collecting and analyzing data, and reporting findings (Marshall & Rossman, 2010).

***Interpersonal considerations*.** Ethical considerations are often related to the interpersonal relationships between the researcher and participants. To build the trusting relationships needed for successful qualitative research, the researcher must be an active, thoughtful, empathetic, and patient listener (Weiss, 1995). The researcher must have an understanding and respect for the perspectives of others. The researcher must have strong interpersonal skills and be able to converse easily with others (Marshall & Rossman, 2010). Respect for persons, beneficence, and justice must also be reflected in the effects of the research on the participant. Weiss (1995) explains that qualitative interviews often expose the ordinarily private life providing possible benefits and risks. A possible benefit to participants is that many participants enjoy having a sympathetic listener who provides them with the opportunity to talk about issues of emotional importance while keeping an emotional distance that allows them to maintain self-

control. The researcher can provide support as the participant recalls incidents that are confusing, distressing, and painful. The result can be that the participant becomes more comfortable with issues that had previously troubled her/him.

Weiss (1995) states that qualitative interviewing is not without risks. There is the risk that the participant may be let down when the interviewing ends. The researcher can address this concern by summing up the interviews and/or sending a copy of the report as a way to bring closure for the participant. Though Weiss (1995) states that it is unlikely to occur, it is possible that the interviewer may weaken the defenses of the participant. Qualitative interviews may elicit an awareness of pain that a participant had pushed out of her/his consciousness. This may cause a participant to be flooded with emotion. The best response by the researcher is to sit quietly rather than try to act like a friend or try to comfort the participant. The researcher should convey an understanding and response to the emotions but should not be overwhelmed by them. Qualitative interviewing may cause a participant to reflect on her/his life and make changes because of this. Such a change could be negative or positive. For example, an interviewee may decide that they no longer want to be an assistant principal. Lastly, Weiss (1995) indicates that a participant may regret talking too openly in an interview and request that all or part of the interview be erased. For example, an interviewee may reveal details of a teacher evaluation that resulted in the termination of the teacher. The interviewee may decide that they do want that information to be included in the study. In this case, the respect for the person and their participation requires the researcher to fulfill the participant's request.

Interviewer-Participant Compatibility. During interviews, the researcher enters the private lives of the participants (Marshall & Rossman, 2010; Weiss, 1995). With each participant, the researcher must be cognizant of the interviewer-participant compatibility (Weiss, 1995). In building a trusting relationship with a participant, some researchers desire for interviewers to be matched with participants in terms of race, gender, and social background (Weiss, 1995). The reasons for this desired compatibility are the acceptance of the interviewer by the participant and an increased likelihood of the interviewer understanding the participant. This concern may have had less of an impact on this study because the researcher was an insider in the world of high school assistant principals, though it could have impacted his study in terms of race and gender. Weiss (1995) argues that, after an interview progresses, the racial difference has little effect on the quality of the relationship. With respect to gender, a great majority of participants are able to develop relationships with an interviewer of either sex though difficulties do appear at times in cross-sex interviewing as discomfort of the interviewer or participant (Weiss, 1995). The interviewer was cognizant of the compatibility between participants and himself. He attempted to mitigate any issues by being an active, thoughtful, and patient listener who truly valued the experiences and perspectives of the participants.

Data collection procedures. In this study, interviews were used to explain and elaborate on the quantitative findings by exploring the behaviors, attitudes, and feelings that assistant principals experienced during the implementation of PL-90 and the interpretations that they assigned to those experiences. The main purpose of interviews is to obtain information that cannot be observed (Creswell, 2009; Merriam, 2009). Not only does unobservable information include past behaviors (Creswell, 2009), it also includes

attitudes, feelings, and interpretations participants assign to their experiences. The richness and depth of interviews derives from the participant sharing both the external events and his/her own internal thoughts and feelings about those events. Interviews are the best method through which an outside researcher can access the interpretations that participants assign to actions and events which have taken place (Walsham, 1995) and were utilized for the collection of qualitative data. The qualitative phase of this study consisted of two interviews with five of the participants and one interview with the other participant who chose to not participate in the second interview. Each interview lasted 30-70 minutes.

Weiss (1995) recommends tape recording interviews if the intent of the research is to acquire knowledge about how the participants saw or reacted to events. Tape recording provides the opportunity for the researcher to focus on what is being said without worrying about trying to take extensive notes or write down every word (Walsham, 1995). Notes never capture exactly what the participant said and often omit detail. Moreover, tape recording allows the researcher to capture exactly what is said in the interview without being overly concerned about note taking. However, tape recording can have some drawbacks. The presence of the tape recorder reminds the participant that what they say is being recorded and may be less candid. If the participant asks for the tape recorder to be turned off, the researcher should oblige (Weiss, 1995). For this study, the advantages of tape recording outweighed the concerns. Therefore, with participant consent, all interviews were tape recorded.

The first interview. The first interview was semi-structured following an interview guide (See Appendix B). Each topic contained a list of areas or questions that

together will lead the lines of inquiry for the interview (Marshall & Rossman, 2010; Weiss, 1995). The interview guide was used to explore the general topics and to uncover the participant's perspectives. The views of the participant should unfold according to the participant's emic perspective and not the interviewer's etic perspective (Marshall & Rossman, 2010; Merriam, 2009). The interview guide was used to ensure that all topics were covered during the interview by providing a flow from one topic to the next or as a topic check at the end of the interview (Weiss, 1995). Weiss (1995) cautions against strict adherence to the interview guide as long as the participant's responses are near the topic of study because permitting the participant to talk about what the participant wants to talk about produces better data. Therefore, the interview guide was used to lead, but not control, the interview.

The interview guide was designed such that each of the initial questions was intended to answer the research questions by explaining or elaborating on the findings of the quantitative data. The first two initial questions about the assistant principal and his/her school informed factors that enabled or constrained the implementation of PL-90. The next three questions were directly related the first three research questions concerning the roles and responsibilities related to PL-90, traditional roles and responsibilities of assistant principals, and the instructional leadership role. The possible follow-up questions were intended to enrich and deepen the responses. Many of the questions began "Tell me about …" which Merriam (2009) recommends for asking experience and behavior questions. The interviewer also asked for specific examples that filled in details including: identifying actors, others the participant consulted, and the inner events (Weiss, 1995). The researcher assisted participants in saying more about

their lives without offering interpretations or judgments by using open-ended questions, eliciting stories, avoiding "why" questions, and following up using the participants phrasing (Hollway & Jefferson, 1997).

The second interview. The interview guide for the second interview was developed after the first set of interviews. The purpose of the second interview was to check with participants if the researcher's interpretations of the quantitative data and the first interviews matched their experiences and to explain or elaborate on the findings of the quantitative phase and the first round of interviews. Specifically, the participants were asked to elaborate on their experiences working with teachers to improve instruction; on the impact of the implementation of PL-90 on their schools pursuit of their vision, goals, and improvement initiatives; and on their experiences with teachers rated as "ineffective" or "needs improvement." The assistant principals were also asked to describe any changes, modifications, or adaptions they made during the second year implementing high-stakes teacher evaluations. Questions in the second interview followed the same guidelines for asking good questions. The goal of these two interviews was to elicit more detailed and descriptive data about the phenomena than surveys provide (Merriam, 2009).

Data Analysis

In qualitative studies, data collection and analysis go together in the building of a coherent interpretation of the phenomenon (Marshall & Rossman, 2010; Merriam, 2009). The researcher organized and analyzed data as it was collected and the interviews were transcribed. After the first interview, he reviewed the purpose of the study before reading and rereading the transcripts. While reading the researcher began making notes in the

margins and then summarized his thoughts, reflections, and tentative themes based upon the first interview (Merriam, 2009). Through this careful reading and rereading of the interview transcripts, he began to develop initial themes and categories (Debray, 2005). As the researcher attempted to make sense of the data, he continued to focus on data that addressed the research questions (Merriam, 2009). The researcher went through the same process after each interview and compared findings to previous interviews. He began to write his thoughts and ideas about how the data were coming together in clusters, patterns, and themes (Marshall & Rossman, 2010). These themes may have been the words and metaphors evoked (Larson, 1997) by the assistant principals as they described their work experiences during the implementation of PL-90.

The process of developing categories began with reading, rereading, and coding transcripts. The categories were the conceptual elements that captured some recurring pattern that occurs across the data (Merriam, 2009). The development of categories were visually represented with clusters that outlined the overarching themes and corresponding codes (Marshall & Rossman, 2010). Merriam (2009) suggests five criteria for the development of categories. Categories should be responsive to the research questions, exhaustive, mutually exclusive, sensitizing, and conceptually congruent. After themes or categories were identified, the researcher searched the data for evidence that supported or disconfirmed them. This can be a difficult process because researchers typically search for confirming rather than disconfirming evidence (Creswell & Miller, 2000). This process increased the validity of this qualitative study (Creswell & Miller, 2000). After he developed his interpretations of the data by creating themes or categories, the researcher began a process of member checking. Member checking involves the

systematic check of validity by taking the data and interpretations back to the participants for confirmation (Creswell & Miller, 2000; Marshall & Rossman, 2010). The researcher asked the assistant principals if the themes or categories made sense and if the account was accurate. In addition to member checking, an audit trail of data collection and analytical strategies was maintained (Marshall & Rossman, 2010).

Second Integration of Phases

The most important step in a mixed methods study is when the findings of the quantitative and qualitative phases are integrated into a coherent framework to answer the research questions (Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2009). The second integration of the quantitative and qualitative phases of this study occurred after the quantitative and qualitative data were collected and analyzed separately. The quantitative survey data analysis provided an interpretation of high school assistant principals' work at the generalized state level while the qualitative interview data analysis provided a more in-depth understanding of their work at the local level. The final integration focused on how the findings of the qualitative data explained and elaborated on the findings of the quantitative data (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011).

Data Analysis Procedures. In this integration, the researcher compared the findings of the two research phases by qualitizing the quantitative data, or transforming it into qualitative data (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011; Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2009). The qualitized data was compared with the qualitative data using a data matrix (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011). This data matrix allowed for easy comparison of the results of the two phases of the study in a side by side discussion (Creswell, 2009). The comparison can result in convergence, inconsistency, or contradiction (Johnson et al., 2007). In each

case, the researcher continued to move back and forth between the quantitative and qualitative in order to better understand the phenomena and answer the research questions.

Teddlie and Tashakkori (2009) suggest six credibility audits for assessing the inferences of this research:

1. Are the explanations for the relationship between variables theoretically and conceptually sound and acceptable?
2. Are the conceptual frameworks of the study (questions, hypotheses) translated into elements of the design (e.g., appropriate sampling, measurement/observation, other procedures)?
3. Did some result occur, and was this the one that was expected?
4. Were the results consistent with previous findings in the literature?
5. Were there other plausible conclusions on the basis of the results, or were there other explanations for the relationships?
6. Were the inferences and interpretations consistent with the analysis of obtained data/information? Were the inferences from parts of the same study consistent with each other? (p. 294)

The use of these six audits contributed to a more valid, reliable, and credible study.

Limitations of the Study

As with any study, this study on the work of Indiana high school assistant principals was limited. This study assumed that reality is multiple and varied based upon the subjective meanings of the participants that were socially and historically negotiated (Creswell, 2009; Merriam, 2009; Walsham, 1995). Since this study was situated in

Indiana high schools during the implementation of PL-90, the findings may not be applicable to other states, other levels of schooling, and other time periods. This study focused on the self-reported perceptions of assistant principals. A possibility of perception errors and bias always exist with self-reported data (Burke & Collins, 2001). Additionally, this study was limited to the perceptions of assistant principals. A study utilizing the perceptions of principals, students, and teachers may reveal different realities than the findings of this study. Other results may have been found if assistant principals were directly observed or kept time journals.

Mixed methods research is difficult for novice researchers because it requires knowledge of quantitative and qualitative methods (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011; Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2009). The quantitative phase of this study may be limited because a low response rate was attained (Fowler, 2002; Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2009). The results of this phase could also be limited if the researcher's categories were not the same as the participants' understanding of them (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004). These limitations were partially addressed by the piloting of the 2013 Indiana High School Assistant Principal Survey but were still concerns. Additionally, the survey results may have missed out on important data because the focus of the data (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004; Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2009) was on the requirements of PL-90, the traditional roles and responsibilities of assistant principals, and the core practices of successful school leadership. The quantitative data analysis may be limited because means are calculated on interval and ratio data and not on nominal and ordinal data. However, the responses on the 5-point Likert type scales for which means were calculated were ordinal data meaning the intervals between responses may not be equal

or viewed as equal by respondents. One of the strengths of mixed methods studies is that the design of the study may reduce the likelihood of some of these limitations (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011). In this case, the qualitative phase revealed other important data. One of the limitations of qualitative studies is that findings may be limited by how articulate and perceptive the interviewees are (Creswell, 2009). This limitation was addressed by the method of selecting participants but it still may have limited the findings. Despite the limitations of this study, readers may find the results useful. Readers of this study can compare the findings with their own knowledge of and experience in schools to determine which of the findings are particular to this phenomenon and which findings may reflect experiences (Larson, 1997).

Chapter 4: Presentation of Findings

The purpose of this study was to examine the ways in which the roles, responsibilities, and work experiences of Indiana high school assistant principals were impacted by the implementation of PL-90. Specifically, this study examined the impact of the implementation of PL-90 on the assistant principals' work with respect to the requirements of the new law, their traditional student and organizational management roles, and their work as instructional leaders. A sequential explanatory mixed methods research design was utilized to study this problem. The quantitative phase consisted of a survey that was sent to all Indiana high school assistant principals to examine this problem broadly. The qualitative phase consisted of in-depth qualitative interviews that were conducted with six assistant principals seeking plausible explanations and elaborations on the findings of the quantitative phase. The data from each of these phases were integrated into a summary of findings.

This chapter presents the summary of the findings in relation to these research questions which focused on the work experiences of Indiana high school assistant principals and the impact of the implementation of PL-90 from the perspective of those in the role.

1. How did Indiana high school assistant principals perceive the impact of PL-90 on their work? Specifically, how did they perceive the impact of PL-90 in relation to:
    d. the requirements of PL-90,
    e. traditional assistant principal roles and responsibilities, and
    f. their role as instructional leaders?

2. What kinds of factors enabled or constrained the different impacts of PL-90 on the work of Indiana high school assistant principals?

Quantitative Phase

The quantitative phase of this mixed-methods study explored the work of Indiana high school APs using the 2013 Indiana High School Assistant Principal Survey (See Appendix A). The first section of the survey examined the assistant principals' perceived level of involvement on 40 leadership practices and actions for all Indiana high school assistant principals. On the second section, assistant principals who implemented PL-90 during the 2012-13 school year and who were in the same assistant principal position for at least two years shared their perceived change in level of involvement on the same 40 leadership practices and actions. The third section of the survey inquired about school and personal characteristics of the participants.

The quantitative phase section of chapter 4 begins with a demographic description of the population and sample. The sample was also divided into three subcategories: assistant principals who answered the first section but were not implementing PL-90, assistant principals who answered the first section and were implementing PL-90, and assistant principals who answered the second section because they were implementing PL-90 and had been in the same assistant principal role for at least two years.

To explore the first research question on the impact of the implementation of PL-90 on the work of Indiana high school assistant principals, response data from the first two sections of the survey were utilized. The responses of those implementing PL-90 were compared to the responses of those not implementing PL-90. This comparison began by exploring the mean scores of both groups for the 40 leadership practices and

actions, the three leadership categories (requirements of PL-90, traditional assistant principal roles and responsibilities, instructional leadership), and the four core practices of successful school leadership (setting directions, developing people, refining and aligning the organization, improving the teaching and learning program). Then, t-test analyses were conducted on the three leadership categories and four core practices of successful school leadership to determine statistically-significant differences between the mean scores of those implementing PL-90 and those not implementing PL-90. Finally, multiple linear regression analyses were used to determine statistically-significant differences between the groups while controlling for demographic variables.

The second section of the survey was used to address the first research question by comparing the mean scores of the changes in level of involvement for the 40 leadership practices and actions, the three leadership categories, and the four core practices of successful school leadership. To address the second research question, multiple linear regression analyses on the second section data were conducted to explore which of the demographic variables had statistically-significant differences for the three leadership practices and four core practices of successful school leadership. The quantitative phase section of chapter 4 concludes with a summary of the findings of the quantitative phase of this study.

Demographic Data

This section of chapter 4 examined the demographic data for the population, sample, and sample subgroups. School characteristic demographic data were collected on all Indiana high school assistant principals in the state and were compared to school characteristic data for the sample of assistant principals who responded to this study's

survey. Personal characteristic data were also collected for the sample. School and personal characteristic data were compared for the entire sample and each of the three sample subgroups.

Population

The population for this study consisted of the 421 high school assistant principals working in Indiana's 280 high schools during the 2012-13 school year. The 421 assistant principals were identified as assistant principal, associate principal, or vice principal on their school's website. Table 2 shows the percentage of assistant principals who worked in high schools with different school characteristics. Data for the school characteristics were collected from the IDOE website (http://www.doe.in.gov/) and from the individual school websites. Percentages are based upon the number of assistant principals in a school with each characteristic. Therefore, if a school had three assistant principals, each characteristic was counted three times.

Table 2 - *School Characteristics as a Percentage of Population and Survey Sample*

Characteristic	Population (n = 421)	Survey Sample (n = 123)
Number of Students		
1,000 or fewer	32.5	33.3
1,001-2,000	40.6	42.3
Over 2,000	26.8	24.4
School Grade		
A	46.1	51.6
B or C	46.3	41.0
D or F	7.6	7.4
Number of Assistant Principals		
1	25.2	26.0
2	28.0	33.3
3	20.0	12.2
4 or more	26.8	28.4

Note. School grade is based upon the grade assigned to each school in the fall of 2012.

Sample

The survey sample consisted of the 123 high school assistant principals who completed the first section of the survey about the level of involvement in each of the leadership practices and actions and third section of the survey about their school and personal characteristics. As shown in Table 2, the percentage of assistant principals in the survey sample was similar to the percentage of assistant principals in the population for each of the three school characteristics. The greatest difference was for the number of APs in schools with exactly 3 APs. The sample had 7.8% fewer assistant principals with three assistant principals in their schools. The sample had 5.5% more assistant principals in schools earning an A and 5.3% fewer assistant principals in schools earning a B or C. Other demographic data for the survey sample were collected on the third section of the survey and are displayed in Table 3.

Sample subgroups. In addition to overall survey sample data, demographic data were analyzed by subgroups. The first and third sections of the survey were answered by all participants. Data for assistant principals at schools that were not implementing PL-90 were compared to the data for the assistant principals at schools who were implementing PL-90. The second section of the survey was only answered by participants who were implementing PL-90 and were in the same assistant principal position for at least two years.

Table 3 shows the demographic data for the entire sample and these three subgroups. The largest difference between the subgroups of assistant principals not implementing PL-90 and assistant principals implementing PL-90 was the evaluation system being used. Assistant principals who were not implementing PL-90 were much

Table 3 - *School and Personal Characteristics as a Percentage of Assistant Principals in Sample and each Subgroup*

Characteristic	Total Sample (n = 123)	Not Implementing PL-90 (n = 32)	Implementing PL-90 (n = 91)	Implementing PL-90 and in same AP Position at least 2 Years (n = 67)
Number of Students				
1,000 or fewer	33.3	31.3	34.1	34.3
1,001-2,000	42.3	40.6	42.9	43.3
Over 2,000	24.4	28.1	23.1	22.4
School Grade				
A	51.6	59.4	48.9	51.5
B or C	41.0	37.5	42.2	45.5
D or F	7.4	3.1	8.9	3.0
Number of Assistant Principals				
1	26.0	18.8	28.6	26.9
2	33.3	40.6	30.8	35.8
3	12.2	9.4	13.2	11.9
4 or more	28.4	31.2	27.5	25.4
School Setting				
Urban	25.4	37.5	21.1	19.7
Suburban	41.8	43.8	41.1	37.9
Rural	25.4	18.8	37.8	42.4
Gender				
Male	61.0	56.3	62.6	62.7
Female	39.0	43.8	37.4	37.3
Ethnicity				
White	92.6	96.9	91.1	94.0
Other	7.4	3.1	8.9	6.0
Highest Level of Education				
Bachelor	0.8	0.0	1.1	0.0
Master's	86.2	90.6	84.6	89.6
Professional or Doctorate	13.0	9.4	14.3	10.4
Evaluation System				
RISE	27.6	3.1	36.3	30.3
Corporation-Modified RISE	35.0	31.3	36.3	39.4
TAP	6.5	3.1	7.7	9.1
Corporation-Developed Plan	29.3	56.3	19.8	21.2
Don't Know	1.6	6.3	0.0	0.0

Note. School grade is based upon the grade assigned to each school in the fall of 2012.

less likely to be using RISE and much more likely to be using a corporation-developed plan. Another large difference between these groups was the school setting. A higher percentage of assistant principals not implementing PL-90 were working in urban locations and a lower percentage were working in rural locations. The third large area of difference between those not implementing PL-90 and those implementing PL-90 was number of assistant principals in the school.

When comparing all sample assistant principals implementing PL-90 with assistant principals who implemented PL-90 and were in the same assistant principal position for at least two years, only minor differences were noted. A higher percentage of assistant principals in the same position for at least two years were in A schools while a lower percentage were in D or F schools. Additionally, a lower percentage of assistant principals who were in the same position at least two years used RISE for the evaluation system. When comparing assistant principals who implemented PL-90 and were in the same position for at least two years with the entire sample of assistant principals, the largest difference was the total sample had much lower percentage of assistant principals in rural schools. The assistant principals in the total sample were also more likely to use a corporation-developed plan than assistant principals who implemented PL-90 and were in the same assistant principal position at least two years.

Data from First Section of Survey – Level of Involvement

For the first section of the survey, each assistant principal was asked to identify his/her perceived level of involvement with each of the 40 leadership practices and actions using a 5-point Likert type scale. Each response was assigned a point value.

1 = Not at all

2 = Very little

3 = Somewhat

4 = Very

5 = Significantly.

Means were then calculated for each leadership practice or action. Means were also calculated for the three leadership categories and for the four core practices of successful school leadership.

To explore the first research question concerning how Indiana high school assistant principals perceived the impact of the implementation of PL-90 on their work, mean scores of assistant principals who were implementing PL-90 and assistant principals who were not implementing PL-90 were compared. The highest quartile of mean scores for each group was examined to identify differences between those implementing and not implementing PL-90. Comparisons were also made between the mean scores for the leadership categories and core practices of successful school leadership. This comparison of mean scores included t-test analyses. After examining these comparisons, multiple linear regression analyses were used to determine statistically-significant differences at the .05 level between the mean scores for assistant principals implementing PL-90 and for assistant principals not implementing PL-90 while controlling for some demographic characteristics.

Research Question #1

Assistant Principals Implementing PL-90

Table 4 lists the highest quartile of mean scores for assistant principals who were implementing PL-90 during 2012-13. The top of this list was dominated by the

requirements of Indiana's new high-stakes educator evaluation law which had four of the 6 highest mean scores. Four of the leadership practices and actions were traditional assistant principal roles and responsibilities. The highest quartile of mean scores did not include any leadership practices or actions included in the core practices of developing people or refining and aligning the organization. The complete list of leadership practices and actions for assistant principals implementing PL-90, organized by leadership category, is found in Table C1.

Table 4 - *Perceived Level of Involvement: Highest Quartile of Mean Scores for Survey Participants Implementing PL-90*

Leadership Practice or Action	Leadership Category	Mean	Standard Deviation
Supervising students during the school day (e.g. passing periods, lunch)	TR	4.659	.600
Conducting lesson-length classroom observations	P90/TLP	4.637	.738
Providing constructive feedback to teachers after observations	P90/TLP	4.516	.721
Conducting short classroom observations (less than 15 minutes)	P90/TLP	4.444	.958
Demonstrating high expectations for student behavior	SD	4.440	.687
Using annual performance evaluation to designate each certified employee as highly effective, effective, improvement necessary, or ineffective	P90	4.440	.980
Completing administrative paperwork	TR	4.429	.791
Supervising students after school hours (e.g. extracurricular activities, dances)	TR	4.396	.787
Disciplining students who violate school rules	TR	4.242	1.148
Demonstrating high expectations for staff/s work with all students	SD	4.209	.707

Note. N = 91. Scale: 1 = Not at all, 2 = Very little, 3 = Somewhat, 4 = Very, and 5 = Significantly. P90 = PL-90 requirement, TR = Traditional Assistant Principal Role or Responsibility, SD = Setting Directions, TLP = Improving the Teaching and Learning Program

Table 5 shows the leadership category and core practice mean scores for assistant principals who implemented PL-90. This table indicates assistant principals who were

implementing the high-stakes teacher evaluation law had the greatest level of involvement in the PL-90 requirements. The three core practices of successful leadership with the highest mean scores were improving the teaching and learning program, setting directions, and developing people.

Table 5 – *Perceived Level of Involvement: Comparing Leadership Categories for Implementing PL-90 and Not Implementing PL-90*

	Implementing PL-90 (n = 91)		Not Implementing PL-90 (n = 32)	
Leadership Category	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*
PL-90 Requirements	3.895*	.657	3.558	.690
Traditional Assistant Principal Roles & Responsibilities	3.736	.502	3.849	.469
Total Instructional Leadership	3.741	.559	3.740	.483
Setting Directions	3.819	.618	3.833	.488
Developing People	3.727	.666	3.672	.566
Refining & Aligning the Organization	3.286	.648	3.323	.631
Improving the Teaching and Learning Program	4.075	.576	4.076	.530

Note. Scale: 1 = Not at all, 2 = Very little, 3 = Somewhat, 4 = Very, and 5 = Significantly. * indicates the difference in means was statistically significant at the .05 level using a t-test (d.f. = 52)

Assistant Principals not Implementing PL-90

Table 6 lists the highest quartile of mean scores for assistant principals who were not implementing PL-90 during 2012-13. Four of the 10 highest mean scores for level of involvement were for traditional assistant principal roles and responsibilities. Three of the 10 leadership practices listed were requirements of PL-90 relating to observing classroom instruction and providing feedback to teachers. The highest quartile of mean scores did not include any leadership practices or actions included in the core practice of developing people. The complete list of leadership practices and actions for assistant principals not implementing PL-90 is found in Table C1.

Table 6 – *Perceived Level of Involvement: Highest Quartile of Mean Scores for Survey Participants Not Implementing PL-90*

Leadership Practice or Action	Leadership Category	Mean	Standard Deviation
Demonstrating high expectations for student behavior	SD	4.594	.665
Completing administrative paperwork	TR	4.538	.718
Dealing with conflicts that arise among teacher-student-parent-support staff	TR	4.500	.759
Conducting lesson-length classroom observations	P90/TLP	4.406	.756
Providing constructive feedback to teachers after observations	P90/TLP	4.406	.712
Conducting short classroom observations (less than 15 minutes)	P90/TLP	4.375	.793
Demonstrating high expectations for staff's work with all students	SD	4.375	.609
Supervising students during the school day (e.g. passing periods, lunch)	TR	4.344	.902
Creating a welcoming environment for parents and community members	RAO	4.281	.851
Disciplining students who violate school rules	TR	4.281	.991

Note. N = 32. Scale: 1 = Not at all, 2 = Very little, 3 = Somewhat, 4 = Very, and 5 = Significantly. P90 = PL-90 requirement, TR = Traditional Assistant Principal Role or Responsibility, SD = Setting Directions, TLP = Improving the Teaching and Learning Program, RAO = Refining and Aligning the Organization

As shown in Table 5, assistant principals who were not implementing PL-90 had the greatest involvement in traditional assistant principal roles and responsibilities. These assistant principals' lowest mean score for a leadership category was for the PL-90 requirements. Among the core practices of successful school leadership, assistant principals who were not implementing PL-90 were most involved with improving the teaching learning program and setting directions.

Comparing Assistant Principals Implementing to Assistant Principals not Implementing PL-90

This comparison of the mean scores on the perceived level of involvement indicates that one impact of the implementation of PL-90 on the work of Indiana high

school assistant principals may have been that assistant principals implementing the new law experienced more involvement in the specific requirements of PL-90. As shown in Table 5, the mean score of 3.895 for assistant principals implementing PL-90 was statistically different from the mean score of 3.558 for those not implementing PL-90 using a t-test ($t = 2.405$, $p = .020$). None of the other differences in mean scores for the leadership practices and core practices of successful school leadership had statistically-significant differences at the .05-level using t-tests.

Statistically-significant differences. To determine if the differences between mean scores of assistant principals not implementing PL-90 and implementing PL-90 were statistically significant while controlling for demographic variables, multiple linear regression analysis was utilized. *Equation 1* shows the multiple regression equation where $x_1, x_2, x_3, \ldots, x_{14}$ are the independent variables, β_i is the standardized coefficient for x_i, b is the y-intercept, and y is the dependent variable. This equation was used for each of the three leadership categories and four core practices of successful school leadership.

$$y = b + \beta_1 x_1 + \beta_2 x_2 + \beta_3 x_3 + \beta_4 x_4 + \beta_5 x_5 + \beta_6 x_6 + \beta_7 x_7 + \beta_8 x_8 + \beta_9 x_9 + \beta_{10} x_{10} + \beta_{11} x_{11} + \beta_{12} x_{12} + \beta_{13} x_{13} + \beta_{14} x_{14} + e \quad (1)$$

y = score for leadership practice or action or leadership category
x_1 = male
x_2 = non-white
x_3 = years as a school administrator
x_4 = years of teaching experience
x_5 = greater than a master's degree
x_6 = mid-sized school (number of students between 1,000 and 1,999)
x_7 = big school (number of students over 2,000)
x_8 = suburban
x_9 = urban
x_{10} = non-traditional high school
x_{11} = school grade of B or C
x_{12} = school grade of D or F
x_{13} = number of assistant principals in school
x_{14} = not implementing PL-90
e = error term

Table 7 shows the Adjusted R Square, F-value, and p-value when *Equation 1* was used to analyze differences for each of the leadership categories and core practices of successful school leadership. When *Equation 1* was used with these leadership categories and core practices, no statistically-significant differences at the .05-level were found. Therefore, even though statistically-significant differences were found using t-tests, there was not a statistically-significant difference when controlling for other variables.

Table 7 - *Statistically-Significant Differences using Equation 1*

Leadership Category	Adjusted R Square	F	p-value
PL-90 Requirements	.062	1.541	.110
Traditional Assistant Principal Roles & Responsibilities	.071	1.625	.085
Total Instructional Leadership	.024	1.201	.286
Setting Directions	.019	1.156	.321
Developing People	.048	1.412	.161
Refining & Aligning the Organization	.017	1.141	.332
Improving the Teaching and Learning Program	-.006	.948	.512

Note. The degrees of freedom for the regression model is 14. The degrees of freedom for the error term is 101.

Data from Second Section of Survey – Changes in Level of Involvement

For the second section of the survey, assistant principals who implemented PL-90 during 2012-13 and were in the same assistant principal position for at least two years were asked to compare their level of involvement in each leadership practice or action during 2012-13 to their level of involvement before 2012-13. They identified their perceived change in level of involvement in each of the 40 leadership practices and actions using a 5-point Likert type scale with each response assigned a point value from 1 to 5.

1 = Significantly Less Involved

2 = Somewhat Less Involved

3 = No Change in Involvement

4 = Somewhat More Involved

5 = Significantly More Involved

Means were then calculated for each leadership practice or action. Means were also calculated for the three leadership categories and for the four core practices of successful school leadership. After calculating the mean score for each leadership practice or action, the statements were ordered from the highest (greatest increase in involvement) to the lowest (greatest decrease in involvement). Additionally, each participant in the second section of the survey was asked to briefly describe the greatest impact that PL-90 had on his/her work as a high school assistant principal and how the implementation of PL-90 affected his/her job satisfaction.

To answer the first research question about the impact of the implementation of PL-90 on their work, the mean scores for changes in the level of involvement for the leadership practices and actions were explored. Moreover, the mean scores for each leadership category and instructional leadership category were examined. This exploration included examining the leadership practices and action by category to gain a deeper understanding of the mean scores. Additionally, the responses to how the implementation affected job satisfaction were examined. Finally, the greatest impacts of the implementation on their work as assistant principals were explored. To address the second research question, multiple linear regression analyses on the second section data were conducted to explore the kinds of factors that enabled or constrained the different impacts of PL-90.

Research Question #1

The impact of the implementation of PL-90 on the work of assistant principals was investigated by examining the mean scores for assistant principals' perceptions of the changes in their level of involvement for the leadership practices and actions. As shown in Table 8, the four leadership actions or practices with the greatest increases in levels of involvement were practices required by Indiana's new high-stakes educator evaluation law. Five of the remaining 6 practices and actions in the first quartile were increases in involvement working with teachers.

Table 8 - *Perceived Change in Level of Involvement: Highest Quartile of Mean Scores*

Leadership Practice or Action	Leadership Category	Mean	Standard Deviation
Using annual performance evaluation to designate each certified employee as highly effective, effective, improvement necessary, or ineffective	P90	4.507	.805
Conducting lesson-length classroom observations	P90/TLP	4.493	.726
Providing constructive feedback to teachers after observations	P90/TLP	4.403	.760
Conducting short classroom observations (less than 15 minutes)	P90/TLP	4.373	.775
Completing administrative paperwork	TR	4.060	.967
Encouraging staff to use data in their work	TLP	4.030	.717
Providing staff individual support to improve their teaching practices	DP	3.985	.707
Engaging teachers in decision-making that affects their instructional work	RAO	3.970	.758
Helping staff members to reflect on the impact of instructional practices on student learning	DP	3.970	.674
Collaborating with staff during student data collection and analysis	TLP	3.821	.695

Note. N = 67. Scale: 1 = Significantly Less Involved, 2 = Somewhat Less Involved, 3 = No Change in Involvement, 4 = Somewhat More Involved, and 5 = Significantly More Involved. P90 = PL-90 requirement, TR = Traditional Assistant Principal Role or Responsibility, DP = Developing People, RAO = Refining & Aligning the Organization, TLP = Improving the Teaching and Learning Program

On the other hand, Table 9 shows that the seven smallest mean scores for changes in involvement were for traditional assistant principal roles and responsibilities. The complete list of means scores for changes in involvement for the leadership practices and actions is found in Table C2.

Table 9 - *Perceived Change in Level of Involvement: Lowest Quartile of Mean Scores*

Leadership Practice or Action	Leadership Category	Mean	Standard Deviation
Disciplining students who violate school rules	TR	2.925	.559
Supervising students during the school day (e.g. passing periods, lunch)	TR	2.925	.531
Monitoring student attendance and enforcing school attendance policies	TR	2.970	.602
Participating in special education conferences	TR	2.970	.602
Organizing and administering standardized tests (e.g. Core 40 ECA, AP, PSAT)	TR	3.015	.369
Coordinating use of school facilities	TR	3.030	.300
Coordinating student clubs and activities	TR	3.045	.367
Creating a welcoming environment for parents and community members	RAO	3.075	.401
Developing and maintaining connections with state policymakers	RAO	3.075	.317
Participating in the hiring of new staff members	TLP	3.090	.452

Note. N = 67. Scale: 1 = Significantly Less Involved, 2 = Somewhat Less Involved, 3 = No Change in Involvement, 4 = Somewhat More Involved, and 5 = Significantly More Involved. TR = Traditional Assistant Principal Role or Responsibility, RAO = Refining & Aligning the Organization, TLP = Improving the Teaching and Learning Program

As shown in Table 10, the requirements of PL-90 was the leadership category with the greatest increase in involvement and traditional assistant principal roles and responsibilities had the smallest increase in involvement. For the core practices of successful school leadership, improving the teaching and learning program had the highest mean score followed by developing people. The core practice with the lowest mean score for change in involvement was refining and aligning the organization.

Table 10 - *Perceived Change in Level of Involvement: Leadership Categories*

Leadership Category	Mean	Standard Deviation
PL-90 Requirements	4.107	.469
Traditional Assistant Principal Roles & Responsibilities	3.157	.278
Total Instructional Leadership	3.596	.380
Setting Directions	3.433	.511
Developing People	3.701	.506
Refining & Aligning the Organization	3.271	.348
Improving the Teaching and Learning Program	3.923	.409

Note. N = 67. Scale: 1 = Significantly Less Involved, 2 = Somewhat Less Involved, 3 = No Change in Involvement, 4 = Somewhat More Involved, and 5 = Significantly More Involved.

Requirements of PL-90

The PL-90 requirements was the leadership category with the greatest increase in levels of involvement (see Table 10). Figure 1 shows that 72% of assistant principals had mean scores of 4.00 or above for the leadership practices and actions included in the requirements of PL-90. Thus, the majority of assistant principals indicated that their change of involvement with the requirements of PL-90 was between somewhat more involved (score of 4) and significantly more involved (score of 5).

Figure 1 – *Assistant Principal Mean Scores for Perceived Change in Involvement with the Requirements of PL-90*

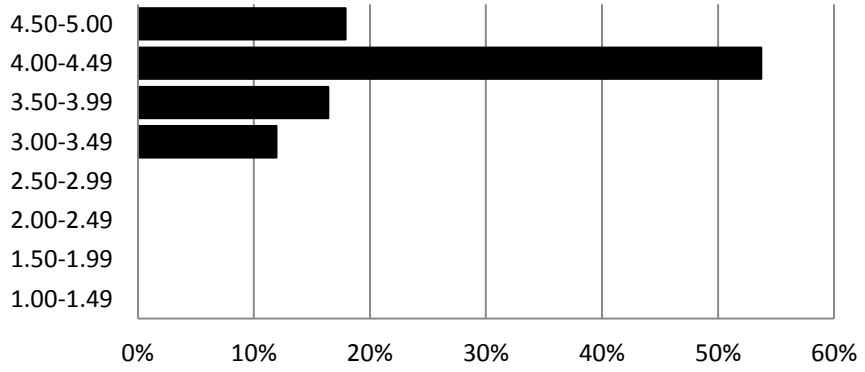

Figure 1. Mean scores for perceived change in involvement were calculated for each assistant principal for the leadership practices and actions included in the requirements of PL-90 leadership category. The percentage of assistant principals with mean scores in each range of scores is depicted above.

Within this category, a majority of assistant principals were somewhat more involved or significantly more involved in 6 of the 7 leadership practices. A majority of assistant principals classified their change in involvement as "significantly more involved" in four of the leadership practices:

- *using annual performance evaluation to designate each certified employee as highly effective, effective improvement necessary, or ineffective* (70%);
- *conducting lesson-length classroom observations* (63%);
- *providing constructive feedback to teachers after observations* (57%); and
- *conducting short classroom observations (less than 15 minutes)* (54%).

The only requirement in which a majority of assistant principals reported no change in involvement was *assisting in the development of locally-developed assessments and other test measures for use in teacher evaluations* (57%). Assistant principals experienced an increase in involvement in the PL-90 requirements.

Traditional Assistant Principal Roles and Responsibilities

The involvement in the leadership practices within the Traditional Assistant Principal Roles and Responsibilities leadership category was relatively unchanged. Figure 2 shows that over 80% of assistant principals had mean scores between 3.00 and 3.49 for the traditional assistant principal roles and responsibilities leadership category. Since a score of 3 means no change in involvement, most assistant principals reported little or no change in involvement.

Figure 2 – *Assistant Principal Mean Scores for Perceived Change in Involvement with the Traditional Assistant Principal Roles and Responsibilities*

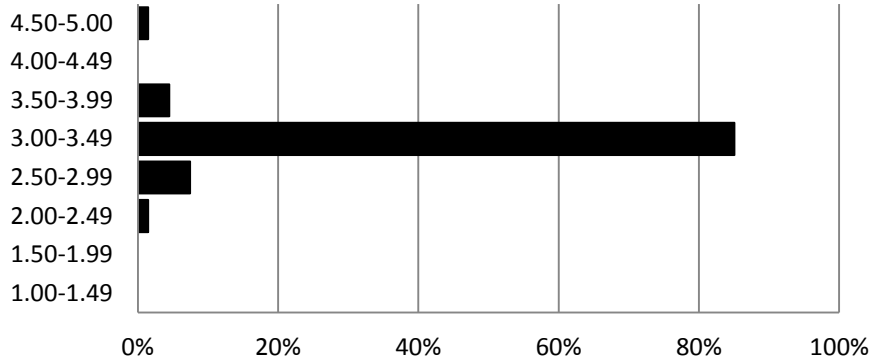

Figure 2. Mean scores for perceived change in involvement were calculated for each assistant principal for the leadership practices and actions included in the traditional assistant principal roles and responsibilities leadership category. The percentage of assistant principals with mean scores in each range of scores is depicted above.

Over 70% of assistant principals experienced no change in involvement in 9 of the 11 leadership practices:

- *coordinating use of school facilities* (96%);
- *coordinating student clubs and activities* (91%);
- *organizing and administering standardized tests (e.g. Core 40 ECA, AP, PSAT)* (91%);
- *supervising students after school hours (e.g. extracurricular activities, dances)* (90%);
- *disciplining students who violate school rules* (82%);
- *monitoring student attendance and enforcing school attendance policies* (82%);
- *dealing with conflicts that arise among teacher-student-parent-support staff* (82%);
- *supervising students during the school day (e.g. passing periods, lunch)* (81%); and
- *participating in special education conferences* (73%).

The only traditional assistant principal leadership practice for which assistant principals reported being more involved was *completing administrative paperwork*. Forty-six percent of assistant principals reported being significantly more involved and 16% being somewhat more involved with this traditional assistant principal leadership practice.

Overall, assistant principals experienced little change in involvement in traditional assistant principal roles and responsibilities.

Instructional leadership

As shown in Table 10, the mean score for change in level of involvement in the Instructional Leadership category was 3.596. Figure 3 shows that 90% of assistant principals had a mean score between 3.00 and 3.99 meaning their perceived level of change was between no change in involvement (score of 3) and somewhat more involved (score of 4). The remaining 10% of assistant principals had mean scores 4.00 or above meaning their perceived change in involvement was between somewhat more involved and significantly more involved (score of 5).

Figure 3 – *Assistant Principal Mean Scores for Perceived Change in Involvement with Total Instructional Leadership*

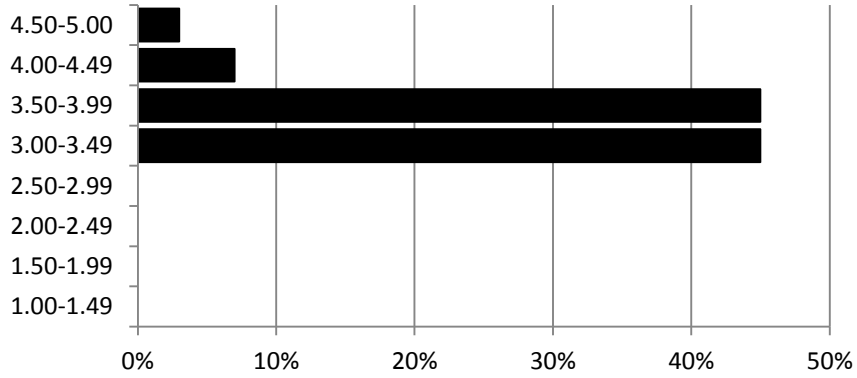

Figure 3. Mean scores for perceived change in involvement were calculated for each assistant principal for the leadership practices and actions included in the total instructional leadership category. The percentage of assistant principals with mean scores in each range of scores is depicted above.

Improving the teaching and learning program. Table 10 shows that improving the teaching and learning program was the core practice of successful school leadership with the largest mean score for change in involvement. As shown in Figure 4, 58% of the assistant principals indicated they were somewhat more involved to significantly more

involved with mean scores of 4.00 or above. Another 24% of assistant principals had mean scores of 3.50 to 3.99.

Figure 4 – *Assistant Principal Mean Scores for Perceived Change in Involvement with Improving the Teaching and Learning Program*

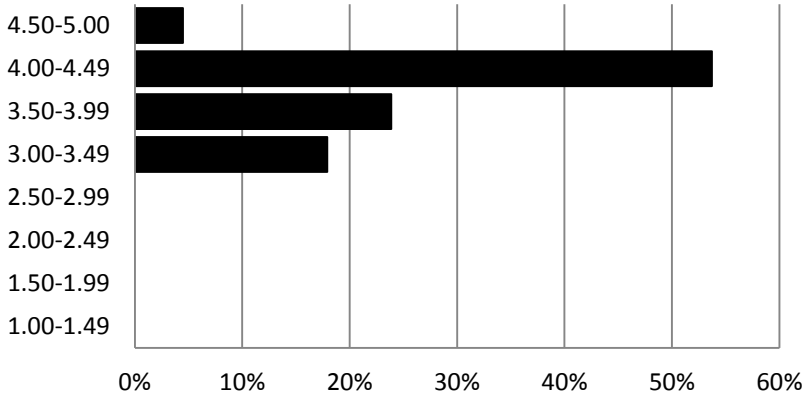

Figure 4. Mean scores for perceived change in involvement were calculated for each assistant principal for the leadership practices and actions included in the core practice of improving the teaching and learning program. The percentage of assistant principals with mean scores in each range of scores is depicted above.

The majority of assistant principals experienced significantly more involvement in the three leadership practices that overlap with the PL-90 requirements:

- *conducting lesson-length classroom observations* (63%),
- *providing constructive feedback to teachers after observations* (57%), and
- *conducting short classroom observations* (54%).

However, assistant principals did not experience the same level of change in involvement in the leadership practices that are not also PL-90 requirements. For e*ncouraging staff to use data in their work* (49%) and *collaborating with staff during student data collection and analysis* (49%), the highest percentage of responses were for somewhat more involved. The majority of assistant principals experienced no change in involvement for *participating in the hiring of new staff members* (88%) and *buffering teachers from distractions to their teaching* (75%). Therefore, the overlap with PL-90 requirements

greatly contributed to the highest mean for the improving the teaching and learning program category.

Developing people. Figure 5 shows that 40% of assistant principals had mean scores between 3.50 and 3.99 for the developing people category. Thirty percent had mean scores between 3.00 and 3.49 while another 30% had mean scores of 4.00 or above.

Figure 5 – *Assistant Principal Mean Scores for Perceived Change in Involvement with Developing People*

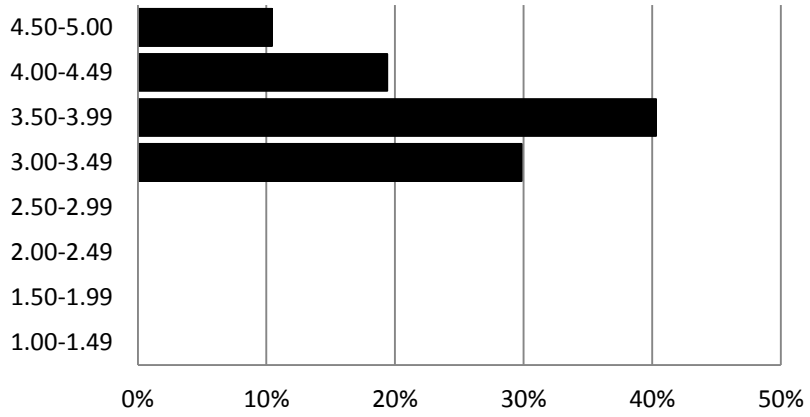

Figure 5. Mean scores for perceived change in involvement were calculated for each assistant principal for the leadership practices and actions included in the core practice of developing people. The percentage of assistant principals with mean scores in each range of scores is depicted above.

A majority of assistant principals reported experiencing somewhat (score of 4) or significantly (score of 5) more involvement in four of the 6 leadership practices:

- *providing staff individual support to improve their teaching practices* (78%),
- *helping staff members to reflect on the impact of instructional practices on student learning* (76%),
- *leading discussions about classroom practices* (57%), and
- *encouraging staff to pursue their own goals for professional learning* (51%).

Many, but not a majority, assistant principals also experienced somewhat or significant increases in involvement in the other leadership practices: *responding to individual staff member's expertise and needs* (46%) and *recognizing the accomplishments of individual*

staff members (42%). Overall, assistant principals experienced an increased level of involvement with developing people.

Setting directions. As shown in Figure 6, over three-fourths of assistant principals indicated that they were between no change in involvement (score of 3) and somewhat more involved (score of 4) for the core practice of setting directions. Forty-nine percent of assistant principals had mean scores between 3.00 and 3.49 for the setting directions category. Another 33% had a mean score between 3.50 and 3.99. Additionally, 6% of assistant principals had mean scores between somewhat less involved (score of 2) and no change in involvement.

Figure 6 – *Assistant Principal Mean Scores for Perceived Change in Involvement with Setting Directions*

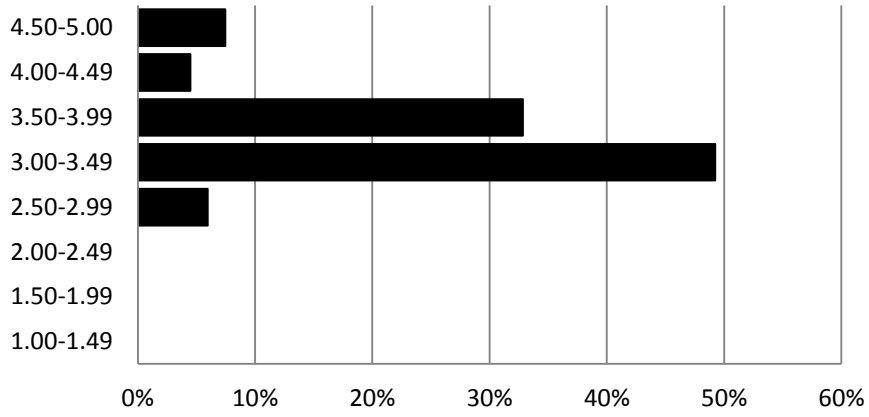

Figure 6. Mean scores for perceived change in involvement were calculated for each assistant principal for the leadership practices and actions included in the core practice of setting directions. The percentage of assistant principals with mean scores in each range of scores is depicted above.

The leadership practices within this category in which assistant principals experienced somewhat or significantly more involvement were *encouraging staff to assume responsibility for achieving the school's vision and goals* (46%) and *demonstrating high expectations for staff's work with all students* (46%). The majority of

assistant principals experienced no change in involvement or a small increase in involvement in setting directions.

Refining and aligning the organization. Table 10 shows that refining and aligning the organization was the core practice of successful school leadership with the lowest mean score for change in involvement. As shown in Figure 7, 67% of assistant principals had a mean score between 3.00 and 3.49 meaning that they experienced little or no change in involvement with the core practice of refining and aligning the organization.

Figure 7 – *Assistant Principal Mean Scores for Perceived Change in Involvement with Refining and Aligning the Organization*

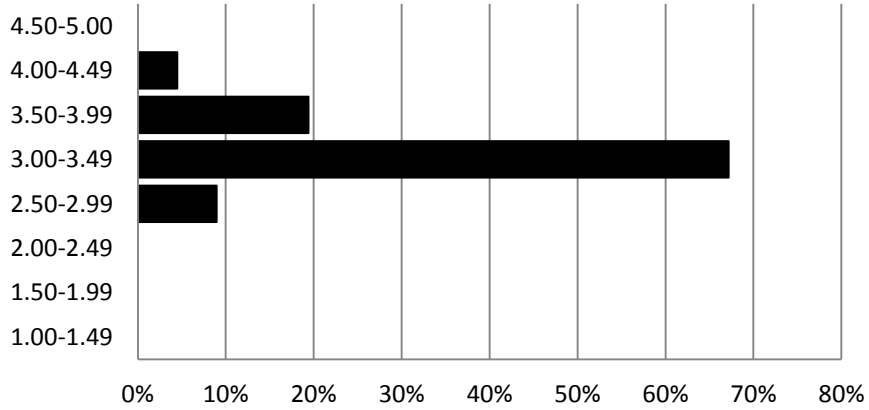

Figure 7. Mean scores for perceived change in involvement were calculated for each assistant principal for the leadership practices and actions included in the core practice of refining and aligning the organization. The percentage of assistant principals with mean scores in each range of scores is depicted above.

For five of the 6 leadership practices, the majority of assistant principals experienced no change in involvement:

- *developing and maintaining connections with state policymakers* (90%),
- *creating a welcoming environment for parents and community members* (88%),
- *engaging parents in the school's improvement initiatives* (78%),
- *cultivating connections with district leaders and other school leaders* (73%), and
- *building community support for school's improvement initiatives* (73%).

The only leadership practice in which a majority of assistant principals experienced an increase in involvement was *engaging teachers in decision-making that affects their instructional work* with 43% experiencing somewhat more involvement and 27% experiencing significantly more involvement. Therefore, the increase in involvement in refining and aligning the organization involved work with teachers and not with other stakeholders.

Job Satisfaction

As shown in Table 11, job satisfaction was not significantly impacted by the implementation of PL-90. With all 67 participants in the second section of the survey responding, almost 93% of assistant principals experienced either no change in satisfaction or their satisfaction only changed somewhat, either less or more. More assistant principals were less satisfied because of the implementation than those who were more satisfied.

Table 11 - *Effect of the Implementation of PL-90 on Job Satisfaction (N = 67)*

Impact	N	%
Significantly Less Satisfied	4	6.0
Somewhat Less Satisfied	20	29.9
No Change in Satisfaction	29	43.3
Somewhat More Satisfied	13	19.4
Significantly More Satisfied	1	1.5

Greatest Impact

On the second section of the survey, assistant principals who had implemented PL-90 during 2012-13 and who had been the same position for at least two years were asked to briefly describe greatest impact that the implementation had on their work. Fifty-eight of the 67 participants responded to this open-ended question. Table 12 presents a summary of the greatest impacts on the work of high school assistant

principals. The greatest impacts were related to increased time and involvement with the requirements of PL-90 and decreased time and involvement with other assistant principal roles and responsibilities. One assistant principal in the survey described the impact this way, "This change has forced me to be in the classroom more, and neglect other parts of my assigned job. It is virtually impossible to do all the observations and complete the role of lead disciplinarian and attendance recorder."

Table 12 - *Greatest Impact of the Implementation of PL-90 (N = 58)*

Impact	N	%
More Time Observing Classrooms	35	60.2
More Time Collaborating and Conferencing with Teachers	24	41.4
More Working Hours	22	37.9
Less Time for Student Discipline and Attendance	11	19.0
More Paperwork	11	19.0
Increased Focus on Educational/Instructional Leadership Role	2	3.4
Increased Stress	2	3.4
Less Contact with Parents and Community Members	2	3.4
More Things Slipped through the Cracks	2	3.4
No Effect	2	3.4

Note. Some APs described multiple impacts. Each impact described is included.

Research Question #2

To address the kinds of factors that enabled or constrained the impact of the implementation of PL-90 on the work of Indiana high school assistant principals, multiple linear regression analyses were utilized. *Equation 2* shows the multiple regression equation where $x_1, x_2, x_3, \ldots, x_{16}$ are the independent variables, β_i is the standardized coefficient for x_i, b is the y-intercept, and y is the dependent variable. This equation was used to determine which demographic characteristic(s) had a statistically-significant impact on each leadership category and on each core practice of successful school leadership at the .05 level.

$$y = b + \beta_1 x_1 + \beta_2 x_2 + \beta_3 x_3 + \beta_4 x_4 + \beta_5 x_5 + \beta_6 x_6 + \beta_7 x_7 + \beta_8 x_8 + \beta_9 x_9 + \beta_{10} x_{10} + \beta_{11} x_{11} + \beta_{12} x_{12} + \beta_{13} x_{13} + \beta_{14} x_{14} + \beta_{15} x_{15} + e \quad (2)$$

y = score for change in involvement in leadership practice or action or leadership category
x_1 = male
x_2 = non-white
x_3 = years as a school administrator
x_4 = years of teaching experience
x_5 = greater than a master's degree
x_6 = mid-sized school (number of students between 1,000 and 1,999)
x_7 = big school (number of students over 2,000)
x_8 = suburban
x_9 = urban
x_{10} = school grade of B or C
x_{11} = school grade of D or F
x_{12} = number of assistant principals in school
x_{13} = used RISE evaluation
x_{14} = used corporation-modified RISE evaluation
x_{15} = used corporation-developed evaluation plan
e = error term

Statistically-Significant Differences

The results of the multiple regression analyses are displayed in Table 13. The only leadership category or core practice of successful school leadership in which the demographic variables account for a statistically-significant level of variance for level of involvement is for the PL-90 requirements. For the level of involvement in PL-90

Table 13 - *Statistically-Significant Differences in Change in Level of Involvement*

Leadership Category	Adjusted R Square	F	p-value
PL-90 Requirements	.180	1.939	.042*
Traditional Assistant Principal Roles & Responsibilities	-.056	.773	.700
Total Instructional Leadership	-.027	.887	.582
Setting Directions	.087	1.406	.182
Developing People	.025	1.108	.374
Refining & Aligning the Organization	-.108	.585	.872
Improving the Teaching and Learning Program	.092	1.434	.169

Note. The degrees of freedom for the regression model is 15. The degrees of freedom for the error term is 49. * indicates the difference in means was statistically significant at the .05 level

requirements, the demographic variables account for 18% of the variance. For the other leadership categories and core practices, no significant relationship was found.

Table 14 displays the standardized coefficient and p-value for each of the demographic variables. Statistically-significant differences in changes in levels of involvement were found for years as a school administrator, for years of teaching experience, and for the evaluation model used. Even though previous studies have found differences in the assistant principal roles and responsibilities of male and female assistant principals (Barnett et al., 2012; Hausman et al., 2002; Loder & Spillane, 2005), no statistically-significant gender differences in change in levels of involvement were found using *Equation 2*.

Table 14 – *Statistically-Significant Changes in Level of Involvement with PL-90 Requirements*

Demographic Characteristic	β	p-value
Male	-.070	.578
Non-white	-.212	.123
Years as a School Administrator	-.399	.004*
Years of Teaching Experience	-.251	.050*
Greater Than a Master's Degree	-.041	.758
Mid-Sized School	.161	.350
Big School	.197	.422
Suburban	.127	.467
Urban	-.037	.814
School Grade of B or C	.099	.464
School Grade of D or F	.171	.289
Number of Assistants Principals	-.218	.332
Used RISE Evaluation	.433	.027*
Used Corporation-Modified RISE Evaluation	.449	.025*
Used Corporation-Developed Evaluation Plan	.387	.044*

Note. The degrees of freedom for the regression model is 15. The degrees of freedom for the error term is 49. * indicates the difference in means was statistically significant at the .05 level

Summary of Quantitative Phase

Research Question #1

In summary, the findings of the quantitative phase of this study concerning Indiana high school assistant principals' perceptions of the impacts of the implementation of PL-90 on their work were:

1. The assistant principals perceived that they were more involved with the requirements of PL-90. Assistant principals who implemented PL-90 and were in the same position for at least two years rated PL-90 as the leadership category with the greatest increase in involvement. Moreover, the top four mean scores for change in level of involvement were for leadership practices and actions required by the new law.
2. The assistant principals reported more involvement with using annual performance evaluation to designate each certified employee as highly effective, effective, improvement necessary, or ineffective. This practice had the greatest mean score for change in involvement in section two of the survey.
3. The greatest impacts of the implementation based on assistant principal perceptions were more time observing classrooms, more time collaborating and conferencing with teachers, and more hours worked. These impacts were also stated in the open-ended responses. Three of the top four leadership practice mean scores for change in level of involvement in section two of the survey included observing classrooms and conferencing with teachers.
4. The assistant principals may have experienced a decrease in involvement in traditional assistant principal roles and responsibilities. Almost 20% of assistant

principals reported the greatest impact on their work was less time for student discipline and attendance.

5. The increases in involvement with instructional leadership were primarily in the core practices of improving the teaching and learning program and developing people. These core practices had the highest mean scores in section two of the survey for change in level of involvement. Improving the teaching and learning program also had three of the top four mean scores for leadership practices and actions.

Research Question #2

The findings of the quantitative phase of this study concerning the kinds of factors that enabled or constrained the impacts of PL-90 were:

1. Statistically-significant differences attributable to demographic characteristics were only found for the requirements of PL-90.
2. Assistant principals with more experience as administrators and assistant principals with more experience as classroom teachers reported experiencing less change in involvement with the requirements of PL-90.
3. The evaluation system used by assistant principals had a statistically-significant effect on the perceived change in involvement with the requirements of PL-90.

Qualitative Phase

The qualitative phase of this mixed-methods study sought to explain and elaborate on the findings of the quantitative phase by exploring participant perspectives on the implementation of PL-90. Six participants from the quantitative phase were selected using stratified sampling with the combination of two dimensions: gender and school

size. Each participant was invited to participate in two semi-structured interviews. The first interviews were conducted during the fall semester of 2013-14 and focused on the impact of implementation on their work in relation to the requirements of PL-90, traditional assistant principal roles and responsibilities, and the instructional leadership role. The second interviews were conducted between April and June 2014. The second interviews focused on the greatest impacts of PL-90 as found by the analysis of the quantitative phase and the first interview. Additionally, the assistant principals were asked to elaborate on their work with staff to make instructional improvements; the impact of the implementation on their school's vision, goals, and improvement initiatives; and changes during the second year of implementation. The qualitative data were analyzed and organized around themes which became evident during the reading, rereading, and coding of the transcripts.

This section of chapter 4 begins with a description of the 6 assistant principals who participated in the qualitative interviews. To answer the first research question, the assistant principals' descriptions of the impacts of the implementation of PL-90 were organized around three themes. The three themes around research question #1 were increased workload, adapting to time constraints, and instructional leadership. To explore the second research question, the researcher examined the differences in implementation experience for the interviewees. The researcher then looked for commonalities and differences in the factors described by the assistant principals. The two themes that became evident around research question #2 were evaluation system and administrative structure. The assistant principals also described differences between the

first and second year of implementation. This section of chapter 4 concludes with a summary of the findings of the qualitative phase of this study.

Interviewees

Sally. Sally was the only assistant principal at a rural Indiana high school of almost 900 students. She was a teacher for less than five years before becoming an administrator and had been in her current position for three years after working five years as administrator in another school. Sally and her building principal were the only ones responsible for the evaluation of teachers using the RISE evaluation model. Sally was also in charge of discipline and attendance issues for her school.

Sam. Sam was the only assistant principal at a suburban Indiana high school with less than 600 students. He was a teacher for less than five years before working as an athletic director for five years. He then moved into his current assistant principal role where he had been for the past four years. Sam and his principal were primarily responsible for the evaluation of the teaching staff using their corporation-developed plan. The athletic director assisted by completing some classroom walkthroughs. Sam was the primary disciplinarian and attendance officer in his school.

Megan. Megan was one of two assistant principals at a suburban Indiana high school with about 1,500 students. She taught for almost 15 years before becoming an administrator. She had been an administrator for 10 years including four years in her current position. In addition to the two assistant principals, Megan's school also had a dean of students whose primary roles were disciplinarian and attendance officer but was not involved in the evaluation of teachers. Megan's school district used a corporation-developed evaluation system. Megan's primary responsibilities focused on curriculum

and instruction. These duties included coordinating grading, scheduling, standardized testing, textbook adoption, clubs, and summer school.

Mark. Mark was one of two assistant principals at an urban Indiana high school with over 1,800 students. Mark taught for over 10 years before becoming an administrator and had been in his only administrative role for 8 years. Teacher evaluation using a corporation-modified version of RISE was shared between the principal and the assistant principals. Mark and the other assistant principal also split other duties. They were each responsible for the discipline and attendance issues for two grade levels. This student management role was the biggest part of their jobs.

Clare. Clare was one of four assistant principals at an urban Indiana high school with over 2,000 students. Clare taught for three years before becoming an administrator. After one year as a disciplinarian, she moved into her current role in which she had remained for another six years. In addition to the principal and four assistant principals, Clare's school also employed four master teachers who assisted with teacher evaluations using the TAP model. Clare's primary responsibilities were related to curriculum and instruction including technology integration.

Paul. Paul was one of four assistant principals at a suburban Indiana high school with over 2,100 students. Paul taught for 7 years before becoming an administrator. He had been an administrator for 13 years at various levels including the last 6 at his current position. In addition to the principal and assistant principals, Paul's high school also had an attendance coordinator who had no teacher evaluation responsibilities. Teacher evaluations were conducted by the principal and four assistant principals using RISE. Paul's primary responsibility was being disciplinarian for one grade level.

Research Question #1

The assistant principals interviewed elaborated on the findings of the quantitative phase of this study by explaining how the implementation of PL-90 impacted their work. Their explanations were categorized into three themes: increased workload, adapting to time constraints, and instructional leadership. The assistant principals explained their experiences of increased workload due to increased involvement with the requirements of PL-90 and increased involvement in meetings related to the implementation. While involvement in these areas increased, there was not a commensurate decrease in other duties. The assistant principals described how the increased workload limited the amount of time that they had during the school day. The assistant principals responded by adapting to how they performed their student management tasks and when they communicated with parents and teachers. Lastly, the assistant principals elaborated on how they experienced an increase in involvement in their instructional leadership role especially related to developing people and improving the teaching and learning program.

Increased Workload

Sally described the implementation of PL-90 as "overwhelming" and "a nightmare." Paul stated that completing all of the teacher evaluations on time was "onerous" and "absolutely brutal." Megan stated that all of the paperwork was "cumbersome" and that she needed "another one of me to get the job done." Sam stated that it was "stressful" managing the requirements of the new teacher evaluations and all his other responsibilities. All 6 interviewees agreed that the implementation of this new high-stakes teacher evaluation law was challenging because of the increased workload and time commitment. The assistant principals worked more hours because they were

spending more time observing classrooms, collaborating with teachers, and completing paperwork. Sally stated the implementation of PL-90 was "a full-time job in and of itself." At the same time, there was little to no reduction in previous duties. Therefore, assistant principals reported they were working 1 to 2 more hours per day and/or were working more on weekends.

The assistant principals in the study completed significantly more observations during the first year of implementation than they had in previous years. Many of them were involved with the development of assessments to be used for the student achievement and growth component of evaluations. Moreover, the assistant principals spent a substantial amount of time explaining the new evaluation systems to their staffs during the first year of implementation. This significant increase in involvement in these areas left less time to complete their previous duties even if there was little to no reduction in those duties.

More observations. Prior to the implementation of PL-90, every Indiana teacher was not required be observed and evaluated every year. During implementation of PL-90, many school corporations adopted evaluation systems that required significantly more observations. During 2011-12, teachers at Sally's school with less than three years in the school corporation were observed and evaluated annually but all other teachers were observed only once every three years. During 2012-13, Sally and her principal combined to conduct three short observations and two extended observations on every teacher. At Megan's school prior to 2012-13, teachers with less than five years of experience in the school corporation were observed and evaluated annually but all other teachers were observed on a rotating basis. During 2012-13, the number of observations and

evaluations for every teacher increased to two long observations and 7 short observations. Clare's school did not require veteran teachers to be evaluated at all prior to PL-90 and some of them had not been evaluated in over 30 years. During the first two years of the implementation of PL-90, each teacher was observed four times annually. The new requirements greatly increased the number of observations required.

Mark was the only assistant principal in the qualitative phase of the study who was heavily involved in observations prior to the implementation of the new high-stakes teacher evaluation law. He explained,

> Prior to last year, I was responsible for approximately 40-45 teacher observations. I actually wrote the summative for 33 of the teachers...Now, last year, I had to do 99 observations. My observations doubled. Even though the 45 observations were considered long, last year I had 33 longs and 66 shorts, it was still a lot of time out of the office and in the classroom.

Other assistant principals experienced even greater increases in observations. Megan was responsible for 70 long observations and 245 five-minute walkthroughs. Sally and Paul conducted about 50 long observations and 75 short observations each. Sam conducted about 50 long observations and Clare completed 32 extended observations. These numbers of observations do not tell the whole story. For a single extend observation, assistant principals worked at least four hours. Sam described how time-consuming one extended observation was when he said,

> You could look at one observation. You start calculating the time that it took for the pre-observation meeting. That's an hour. You look at the time that you get into the classroom. You're in there for basically another hour. Then, going back through and revising your notes and looking at everything and kind of taking everything back in as reviewing. You're looking at another hour there. So, when we first started doing this and then you putting the actual observation together and then meeting for the post-observation. You're looking at about 4 hours of time for one observation for one teacher.

Therefore, when Clare completed the smallest number of observations among the interviewees, her 32 long observations equated to 128 hours or three 40-hour work weeks. On the other extreme, Megan completed 70 long observations. On these observations, she worked the equivalent of seven 40-hour work weeks or almost two additional months.

Developing measures of student growth and achievement. Another requirement of PL-90 in which most of the assistant principals experienced an increase in time and workload was the development of assessments and other methods to measure student growth and achievement data for teachers. Four of the 6 assistant principals described the multiple meetings that were required while they assisted teachers in selecting student groups (high, middle, and low achievement) and setting growth and achievement goals for each student group. Additionally, the assistant principals worked with teachers to develop assessments to measure student growth and achievement. Finally, they worked with teachers to analyze the student data and determine if the teachers met their goals. Because it was the first year of these assessments, the assistant principals spent considerable time working with individual teachers and groups of teachers to develop these assessments and goals. Mark described the process in this way,

> That was the SLO, the student learning objective. That was a lot of time meeting with individual teachers to set up their SLO and then meeting with them afterward seeing how they did on their SLO and, for the teachers that did not have an ECA [End of Course Assessment] or an AP [Advanced Placement] test to give for their SLO, it was a lot of time for them to develop their exam that they were going to use on their SLO and for us to go through that with them…This is how the SLO works. This is how you select which class is going to be your SLO class. This is how you determine if your students are high, medium, or low to start with. There were a lot of group meetings. I probably met with each department twice in the first semester and then a lot of individual meetings.

Only two of the assistant principals interviewed were not significantly involved in the development of student growth and achievement assessments and measures. Clare was not involved because her school used school-wide data for their student growth and achievement data and Sam was not involved because his teachers worked with the district data coach instead.

More paperwork. The additional requirements of PL-90 also led to additional paperwork (e.g. lesson scripts, evaluation rubrics, student data forms) that had to be completed. The assistant principals included more paperwork as one of the greatest impacts of the implementation of PL-90. For Mark, the additional paperwork requirement was completed after school and meant that he worked at school an additional 1-2 hours per day. Megan found the paperwork to document "every little component" was cumbersome and harder than expected. Sam spent most of his Sundays completing paperwork on his evaluations.

Explaining the new evaluation systems. The implementation was especially time-consuming during the first year because the assistant principals were learning the process and leading teachers through the process for the first time. Each assistant principal received at least three days of training prior to the start of 2012-13 on their evaluation system in preparation for the implementation. However, prior to the school year, most of their teachers were not aware of all the components of the evaluation systems. Paul described how challenging it was for him and his fellow administrators to explain the process to teachers.

> It was very difficult to keep the answers straight. It was very difficult because at the beginning of the RISE thing in the fall, we were getting different answers all the time. We were told, "OK, it's going to be this." And then week later, we would get an email, "It's actually this." Just various things like when can the

> observations take place, what classes can be used for the SLO [student learning objective], what assessments can be used, what quarter do you do the assessments in, and just all kinds of things were changing all the time. And so, it probably was that I would tell one teacher an answer to the question. A week later, somebody else would ask me and the answer was different. And then, when you don't know, it was a little confrontational at times that way.

To fully educate the staff, Clare's school spent almost the entire first semester going through the evaluation rubric with teachers in group meetings. While this was beneficial for all staff to speak a common language, the evaluators had a little more than a semester to complete a year's worth of observations and evaluations. Mark attended department meetings throughout the year for the purpose of explaining the evaluation system. In addition to the department meetings, he met with teachers individually to answer their questions. The time spent educating the staff on the specific evaluation systems was valuable but consumed a limited resource.

Little reduction of previous responsibilities. Despite the fact that there was a considerable increase in the amount of work expected of these assistant principals with teacher evaluations, there was little to no reduction in the previous responsibilities. Sam and Paul were the only two assistant principals who had a reduction of other responsibilities because of the implementation. Sam convinced his superintendent that he did not have time to observe teachers and attend case conferences. Therefore, the guidance counselors began attending case conference in his place. For Paul, he was able to rely more on the attendance coordinator to coordinate drug testing and to cover lunch supervision. All the other assistant principals interviewed stated that their previous responsibilities did not change. Megan explained that her school was already short-staffed with previous cutbacks so she could not "push off anything or delegate something differently to someone else." Many of the assistant principals explained similar

sentiments that, despite the fact that they experienced a significant increase in evaluation duties, their other responsibilities did not change.

Adapting to Time Constraints

During the implementation of PL-90, Indiana high school assistant principals experienced a great deal of change in their work. In addition to elaborating on their increased workload, the assistant principals explained how they adapted to the time constraints during the school day. The increased workload caused the assistant principals to have less time during the school day to complete their previous duties. Since many of their previous duties required students to be present, the implementation of PL-90 caused the assistant principals to adapt to limited time during the school day. Mark explained, "Whatever I was doing before had to be done in 6 hours a day instead of 7 hours a day." To adapt to this change, Paul stated, "I fundamentally changed quite a bit of the stuff I would do in my day to make it work." These adaptions to the time constraints primarily occurred with how the assistant principals fulfilled their roles as disciplinarian and attendance officer. They also adjusted when they communicated with parents and teachers.

Student management. The assistant principals' student management role was greatly impacted by the implementation of PL-90. The assistant principals had the same amount of responsibility as the schools' disciplinarians and attendance officers but they had significantly less time to complete these roles. Mark stated, "I don't think that the number of discipline incidents went down in this building. We just didn't have time to spend with them [students] like we did in the past."

Sam and Sally described how they felt the quality of their student management work suffered because of the implementation of PL-90. Sam elaborated on this experience saying:

> When you are spending all your time in the classroom as an assistant principal…something's got to give, something gives up somewhere. So then, somebody slips by with *x* amount of tardies that should have gotten a discipline for it. Someone skips a detention or Friday school and got away with it because I didn't get a chance to get back to them. So, there were things like that that were bothering me.

Sally described her experience:

> The attendance slid. I was scared to say the attendance percentage honestly. That was the last thing on my plate. That just was the last priority that I was faced with. There's only so many hours in a day and I can take paperwork home and do paperwork; but, the thing is with discipline, I need to see the kids. With attendance, I need to see the kids. With the evaluations, I need to see the teachers. So that all has to be done during school hours and there just weren't enough hours in the day to get it done.

The assistant principals interviewed addressed the time dilemma between teacher evaluations and student management in different ways. Sam described how he reorganized his week to successfully accomplish all of his tasks. On Monday, Tuesday, and Wednesday, he would conduct observations and meet with teachers while leaving "that little cushion there because things are always going to pop up that you weren't expecting." On Thursday, Sam addressed all of his attendance issues. On Friday, he would address discipline reports, detentions, and Friday schools. On Sunday, Sam read through his observation notes and completed the evaluation rubrics on the teachers he had observed the previous the week. Thus, Sam was able to organize his week in a way that allowed him to complete all of his tasks even if he questioned the quality of the work he completed.

Mark dealt with reduction in time to complete student management tasks by spending less time relationship building with students. Instead of working with a student with a discipline referral by exploring why the student did what he did, considering different behavior choices for the future, and role playing a different way to handle the situation, Mark described his conversation with the student as "[T]his is what you did wrong. This is your punishment. Go back to class."

On the other hand, Clare described a reduction in student management issues that coincided with the implementation of PL-90. Clare explained that there has been a paradigm shift among teachers in her building. She stated, "The shift has been 'What policies and procedures do we have in place that directly impact student achievement? And, if they don't directly impact student achievement, why are we worrying about them?'" Therefore, there were fewer referrals for minor infractions, like dress code, and there was a reduction in time needed for the assistant principals to complete their student management tasks.

Parent and teacher communication. In addition to having less time during the day to work with students, the assistant principals had less time to communicate with parents and teachers. Sally described that when parents and teachers stopped by her office, Sally was continually out of the office conducting evaluations.

> They would say, "I came down and couldn't find you." "Well, out doing evaluations." "Out there doing evaluations." "Out doing evaluations." It was like a broken record. We just weren't as accessible as we usually are. And that part was hard. I mean, if they come down, it's because they needed something. They're not just popping in here because they want to come see the assistant principal.

Megan explained that, in order to talk about a non-evaluation related topic, teachers had to set up appointments one or two weeks in advance to meet with her

because her schedule was so packed. All the assistant principals described not having time during the day to meet and communicate with parents and teachers.

Because of limited time during the school day, Paul tried to limit phone calls and meetings with parents during the day. If a parent called during the school day, Paul instructed his secretary to answer the question if she could or take a message which he would return after 3:00. Only in case of an emergency did Paul take a parent phone call during the school day. He also rarely had a parent meeting during the day. Parental phone calls and meetings were moved to afterschool meaning that Paul was at school longer each day. Clare also moved management and communication tasks to afterschool hours. She conducts the majority of her meetings afterschool and often "answers emails at 10:00 at night." To adapt to the time constraints during the school day, assistant principals changed how and when they worked with students, parents, and teachers.

Instructional Leadership

In addition to experiencing an increased workload and time constraints during the school day, the assistant principals experienced changes in their roles as an instructional leader. Sam, Sally, and Mark stated that prior to the implementation of PL-90 they had very few responsibilities with instructional leadership because those responsibilities belonged to the principal. Therefore, their instructional leadership greatly increased during the implementation. Megan, Clare, and Paul had some previous instructional leadership responsibilities. Therefore, the implementation increased their instructional leadership and impacted how they enacted this leadership. For Megan, the implementation provided her with "a way to target professional development." Clare explained how she now has more evidence to use when discussing instructional practices

with teachers. For Paul, the implementation provided him with an opportunity to encourage staff to assume responsibility for the school's vision and improvement initiatives.

When describing their increased role in instructional leadership, the assistant principals' experiences focused on two of the four core practices of successful school leadership: improving the teaching and learning program and developing people. The assistant principals explained their involvement with improving the teaching and learning program by describing their experiences observing teachers and encouraging them to use data in their work. They elaborated on their involvement in developing people through their work with teachers to improve instruction by focusing on the teachers' needs and providing the necessary supports. The assistant principals described different experiences of the impact of PL-90 on setting directions. Some of the assistant principals explained their experience of refining and aligning the organization by engaging teachers in decision-making that affects their instructional work.

Improving the teaching and learning program. Improving the teaching and learning program is the core practice of successful school leadership that aims to improve the working environment by supporting stability and strengthening infrastructure (Leithwood et al., 2008). The assistant principals explained their involvement in improving the teaching and learning program primarily through the classroom observation process. They also described their involvement with teachers in using, collecting, and analyzing student growth and achievement data. The classroom observation process included conducting observations and providing feedback to teachers after the observation. These areas of involvement overlapped with the requirements of

PL-90. The assistant principals did not describe any involvement with hiring new teachers or buffering teachers from distractions. These areas of improving the teaching and learning program did not overlap with PL-90 requirements.

The assistant principals described in great detail their involvement in the observation process as a part of the implementation of PL-90. As stated early, the number of classroom observations that each assistant principal conducted greatly increased during the first year of implementation. Additionally, assistant principals reported that the amount of constructive feedback to teachers after those observations also increased significantly. Moreover, the assistant principals described how the quality of their feedback improved. The assistant principals used their evaluation rubrics during the observations to determine whether or not the lesson met the standard described in the rubric. They then used these determinations of areas for improvement and areas of strength when providing feedback to teachers.

Because the assistant principals were required to conduct more observations and were trained extensively on their rubric, they were able to collect better evidence on the teaching quality. Clare stated, "I never really had a conversation about instruction because I didn't really feel as an evaluator that I had enough evidence to talk to a teacher about their instruction." When a teacher questioned their evaluation score on a certain indicator, the assistant principals were able to describe in detail why they scored the teacher as they did and also explain what improvements were needed to increase the score. For example, Mark described an observation in which the teacher was not meeting the standard for checking for understanding. He stated:

> That was a very difficult conversation because, when he got marked low in that area, he just couldn't understand it. He didn't like it. He was down here within a

> half an hour of getting his observation back; but that led to, when I observed him just last week or the week before, there was so much more interaction between him and the kids…That's a huge positive that started out as something very uncomfortable.

The implementation has led to more and better constructive feedback to teachers to improve instruction.

The assistant principals also described how the implementation of PL-90 has also led them to encourage teachers to use data in their work and collaborate with teachers during data collection and analysis. The primary increase in involvement with student data was with the local measures of student growth and achievement. As described earlier, the assistant principals were very involved with developing the new assessments and with collaborating with teachers during the analysis of this data. Sally stated,

> They had to have to us their SLO [student learning objective] and to identify…their classroom objective and their targeted objective and those goals. And identify those kids…They had to use different data points to determine their high, medium, and low groups. And then from their low obviously was their targeted. Then they had to say, "In order to be highly effective, I will have 6 of the 9 in my mediums will pass the SLO, or score 70%, or reach mastery, or whatever the case may be…We had to approve the SLO. We looked at all the SLOs and made sure, "Ok, this seems legitimate. There seems to be a wide range of questioning, not necessarily techniques but different levels to be sure that it wasn't so simple, yet it wasn't too hard on the other extreme either, but a good mixture of that."

However, this was not the only way that assistant principals were involved with collaborating with teachers about student performance data. The assistant principals were also involved with encouraging teachers to use school-wide data (e.g. standardized tests, attendance, graduation rates) for improvements in curriculum and instruction.

Developing people. Developing people is the core practice of successful school leadership that focuses on building staff members' capacity to improve instruction

(Leithwood & Riehl, 2005). The assistant principals interviewed discussed a number of ways that they were involved with developing people. The assistant principals were very involved in leading discussions about classroom practices and helping teachers to reflect on the impact of their classroom practices. The assistant principals provided individual support for teachers based upon the teacher's needs. The assistant principals were also very involved with professional development for teachers.

As described earlier, the assistant principals were very involved with meeting with teachers after observations to discuss classroom practices and to provide constructive feedback. An integral part of the post-observation conferences was the teacher's completion of a self-reflection form on the observed lesson. Sam explained his school's desire to focus their evaluations on the teacher and the teacher's thoughts about what went well and what needed improvement. This focus was a major component of the post-observation conferences that he led. Clare elaborated on leading a discussion in a post-observation conference with a teacher who used the evaluation rubric to consider her lack of differentiation in the classroom. Clare summarized the experience saying,

> She reflected on that and I, as the evaluator, I just sort of sat back and watched her metacognitively coach herself. She reflected on what she felt she needed to do better and then we talked about how that fit into her area of refinement.

Not all discussions about classroom practices occurred during the post-observation conference. The assistant principals described leading discussions about classroom practices in pre-observation conferences, department meetings, and administrative team meetings. They also described informally leading discussions when teachers stopped by their offices and when they passed teachers in the hallways.

The primary method of developing people was to work with individual teachers rather than with groups of teachers. Many of these conversations were directly related to areas of improvement as noted in the teacher evaluation. Megan stated, "We've been able to pinpoint those [areas for improvement] in a little more focused manner due to those observations." Sally described multiple conversations that she had with a teacher with poor classroom management. She provided additional supports to help him improve in this area. Mark described three teachers that made significant improvements in their teaching because of discussions and support that he provided them on planning lessons.

> [T]his guy was getting a D- or F. If I was going to give him a grade on his teaching, that is probably what it would have been and he is probably up to a C now, which is kind of a dramatic thing. The other two that I am thinking of were probably doing C-level work, C/C- level work. Now there probably doing B- or solid B level work directly related to having to have lesson plans, have data drive their lesson plans, and having to be intentional about professional development.

All the assistant principals described similar experiences working with individual teachers to address areas for improvement.

In addition to working with teachers individually, the assistant principals were very involved with providing professional development for groups of teachers. Megan described monthly "prep period workshops" for teachers based upon school-wide observation data. Mark described how his school used teachers with expertise in a certain area to lead afterschool professional development workshops. He strongly encouraged teachers who needed to improve in that area to attend. Clare described how she continued to work with her master teachers to provide needed professional development for groups of teachers. The assistant principals were involved with the increased professional development activities in their buildings.

Setting directions. Setting directions is the core practice of successful school leadership that involves the development of shared understandings about the school and its goals (Leithwood & Riehl, 2005). The assistant principals described different experiences of the impact of the implementation on PL-90 on setting directions. Mark and Sally explained how the implementation had helped get teachers involved in school improvement initiatives. Mark stated,

> [T]he new evaluation has made teachers more willing and more anxious to volunteer for things because the teacher leadership, the domain 3, is part of their score and it's laid out so plainly. You know, serving on school committees, leading school committees, collaborating with teachers.

Megan described how the implementation inhibited school improvement initiatives. Clare elaborated on some benefits and hindrances of the implementation on setting directions. Paul described how school's vision and goals influenced the way he observes.

One of evaluation domains used in Mark's school is "Teacher Leadership." As a part of this domain, teachers score higher on the rubric if they are involved in school committees. Therefore, significantly more teachers are volunteering to be a part of committees discussing and implementing school improvement initiatives. For Sally, the teachers have become more aware of the school goals and have taken ownership of the school data around those goals. She explained,

> Improving attendance was one of our goals. So that the teachers see that they all have ownership and they play a part in that. These goals are going to affect our A-F rating and we need everybody working together. Whether it's English or algebra ECA while they may not teach that, how are they helping support the improvement process?

The goals for Clare's schools are centered on improving ECA scores and graduation rates. Each teacher is now a part of a group centered on one of these goals.

On the other hand, the implementation has also hindered school improvement initiatives to achieve school goals. Clare described that their evaluation system has become the school improvement initiative to the exclusion of any other initiatives. She said, "You would push our teachers over the edge if we were to start another initiative soon, but it is still something that we need." Megan elaborated on the difficulty her school is having implementing an early college initiative because of lack of time. Megan elaborated,

> With the timing of trying to get together with other outside agencies, Ivy Tech, other colleges, other groups in the community, and trying to balance that with being in the classroom to observe teachers, it's all a time issue that gets in the way. So, I want to meet with them here but I need to be in the classroom.

The implementation of PL-90 is both enhancing and hindering school improvement initiatives to achieve the schools' goals and visions.

Refining and aligning the organization. Refining and aligning the organization is the core practice of successful school leadership that seeks to develop effective organizations that support and sustain teacher and student performance (Leithwood & Riehl, 2005). Refining and aligning the organization entails involving school stakeholders in improvement initiatives. In the assistant principals' discussions of school improvement initiatives, very little was mentioned about involving teachers, parents, district and school leaders, community members, and state policymakers.

Mark explained how teachers were getting engaged in decision-making that affects their work. All the assistant principals interviewed described working with the other administrators in their own schools on their evaluation systems. Sam described how the district administrators meet weekly to discuss the implementation of PL-90. He explained,

> So all of our administrators get together every Tuesday morning from 8:30-10:30. There's quite a few days where we will sit down and talk about things that we're not really sure, just kind of get some input from each other, kind of collaborate together on like how do you show global perspective in an elementary science class.

Clare described working with an elementary principal to ensure inter-rater reliability on their evaluation instrument between schools. She stated, "I'm going to an elementary school classroom. We are going to talk about 2 specific indicators. Throughout the year, we are going to be paired 6 times to do inter-rater reliability with 2 indicators." None of the assistant principals mentioned working with parents, community members, or state policymakers to develop their organizations. Therefore, the assistant principals' involvement with refining and aligning the organization was confined to working with other educators in their buildings and districts but not with other stakeholders.

Research Question #2

The assistant principals interviewed elaborated on the findings of the quantitative phase of this study by explaining factors that enabled or constrained the different impacts of PL-90 on their work. The explanations were categorized into two themes: evaluation system used and administrative structure. Moreover, the assistant principals discussed differences between the first and second years of implementation. During the second year of implementation of PL-90, the assistant principals reported conducting fewer observations and utilizing new software programs to streamline the evaluation process. They also reported that familiarity with the evaluation systems and processes changed their conversations with teachers.

Evaluation Systems

While interviewing and beginning to transcribe the interviews, one theme became evident very quickly – the evaluation system used had a large impact on how the assistant

principals experienced the implementation of PL-90. The assistant principals explained how many observations they were required to complete based upon their evaluation system. They discussed how they were working with teachers to develop assessments to measure student growth and achievement data and how they worked with teachers to analyze that data. The assistant principals elaborated on how they used the rubric to provide constructive feedback to teachers after observations. The assistant principals discussed how they used their evaluation system to communicate with teachers and provide professional development. The assistant principals continually used the lens of their evaluation system to describe the impacts of PL-90 on their work.

Classroom observations. A significant increase in the number of classroom observations required by PL-90 was universally described by the assistant principals. However, how many observations required was dependent upon the evaluation system used. Because Sally and Paul were using RISE, they were both involved with conducting two extended and three short observations on each teacher. Mark's school used a modified version of RISE which required teachers to have only one extended and two short observations thus reducing the number of observations he had to complete. As a part of her corporation-developed plan, Megan had to conduct 7 total observations (two extended and 5 short) on each of 35 teachers she was assigned to observe. Sam's school also used a corporation-developed plan but each teacher received only three extended and no short observations. Clare's teachers received the greatest number of extended observations with four each. However, Clare's school used TAP so the master teachers conducted a majority of the observations and not the building administrators.

The evaluation systems used not only impacted the number of observations the assistant principals had to conduct, they also impacted how the assistant principals observed teachers. The assistant principals described how they looked for evidence during the observation that matched the descriptions on their rubrics. Most of the assistant principals described looking for evidence to support an effective teacher rating on each indicator. On the other hand, Megan's school implemented their evaluation plan under a "positive assumption." Megan described this positive assumption paradigm as, unless there was evidence that something was not occurring, the evaluators "assumed it was effective instruction." Sam's evaluation system emphasized teachers using artifacts to demonstrate evidence of effectiveness rather than focusing primarily on the observations. Therefore, a lot of his feedback to teachers about classroom practices focused on the artifacts that the teachers supplied rather than on what he directly observed in the classroom (e.g. differentiation, reflection on practice). Sam elaborated, "There were a lot of opportunities for the teachers to say, 'Here's my data. Here's my growth. I can show the achievement rates in my classroom.'" The assistant principal's evaluation system impacted how many observations s/he had to complete and how the assistant principal conducted the evaluation.

Measures of student growth and achievement. Another area of impact that was affected by the evaluation system used was the development and use of assessments and other methods to measure growth and achievement data for teachers. Assistant principals using RISE followed a very detailed procedure for using data in teacher evaluations. Sally and Paul were significantly involved with helping teachers identify low, middle, and high achievement groups and setting goals for each of these groups. They were also

involved in helping teachers develop appropriate assessments to use. Because the requirements for student data usage in a corporation-modified RISE evaluation system were required to be nearly identical to RISE, Mark had a similar experience with measures of student growth and achievement. Megan's school district modeled a lot of their plan after RISE. Therefore, she also had a similar experience with these activities. Since Clare's schools used the TAP evaluation system, her experience with measures of student growth and achievement were significantly different. Sam's experience was also different because his corporation-developed plan did not have the same student data requirements as RISE.

Instructional leadership. The evaluation systems used by the assistant principals not only affected classroom observations and student data components of the implementation of PL-90, they also affected other instructional leadership involvement. The evaluation system used impacted other leadership practices for improving the teaching and learning program. The assistant principals described how the use of the evaluation rubric was essential when providing constructive feedback to teachers. Mark described how he would "point to the rubric especially if they [the teachers] didn't understand why they were effective and they wanted to be highly effective, I would have to point to the rubric and say this is what I saw." The other assistant principals described similar uses of the rubric when providing feedback. Since the evaluation rubrics were different, the conversations about effective instruction were also different.

The evaluation systems also affected the impacts on the assistant principals' involvement in the core practice of developing people. Most of the assistant principals interviewed primarily worked individually with teachers to discuss classroom practices

and address teachers' needs. Clare was the only assistant principal who provided a lot of her support and professional development in groups rather than individually. With TAP, the assistant principals and master teachers provided weekly professional development about instructional practices and its impacts on student learning. Mark's school provided a lot of "in-house" professional development because of RISE. Mark used an indicator under "Teacher Leadership" to encourage involvement. Teachers could raise their score by attending professional development sessions and could increase their score even more by leading the session. Therefore, Mark used the evaluation rubric to increase participation in professional development at his school.

The evaluation system also affected the core practices of setting directions and refining and aligning the organization. Just as Mark used the RISE rubric to encourage teachers to participate in professional development opportunities, he also used it to encourage teachers to join school improvement initiative committees. These committees engaged in decision-making that affected the teachers' work. Clare's increased involvement with school leaders in other buildings was directly related to TAP. Because TAP emphasizes inter-rater reliability, Clare was working with an elementary principal to enhance inter-rater reliability between buildings. The evaluation system used by the assistant principals impacted what and how they have increased their involvement as instructional leaders.

Administrative Structure

Another factor that influenced the impacts of the implementation of PL-90 was the structure of the high school administrative teams. The structure of the administrative team refers to the number of assistant principals and the distribution of duties. The

distribution of duties increased the number of observations that Megan conducted. Because she did not have student management duties like the other assistant principal in her school, Megan was responsible for evaluating more teachers. She explained,

> Previous to [the implementation], it was a challenge for that person in that role to do staff evaluations with the caseload if it was equitable of basically 30-30-30. It was a very big challenge depending on what types of disruptions took place with student needs.

Therefore, the other assistant principal had a reduced evaluation load of 20 while Megan and the principal evaluated 35 teachers each. The administrative structure allowed Paul to shift some his duties to the attendance officer at his school. Assistant principals at the other schools did not have the same option.

The greatest difference between assistant principals' experiences of the implementation related to administrative structure was the impact on student management tasks. Because Clare and Megan were not responsible for student management in their experiences, they did not experience a change in involvement. However, the other assistant principals explained significant changes in their work as disciplinarians and attendance officers. Therefore, the assistant principals involved with student management experienced significant changes in these roles. Their level of involvement remained constant but their time was greatly limited by the implementation of the new teacher evaluation law.

The number of assistant principals at the school also influenced the experience of the implementation. When one of Clare's teachers was placed on an improvement plan, the assistant principals shared the responsibility of observing the teacher every week for 8 weeks. Clare was only responsible for two of the 8 extended observations during that time to monitor the teacher's progress. On the other hand, when one of Sally's teachers

was placed on an improvement plan, only she and the principal shared the responsibility of monitoring the teacher's progress. When Megan's school was providing professional development activities for teachers, Megan shared the organization and presentation responsibilities with the principal and other assistant principal. When Sally's school implemented professional development, there was no one besides the principal with whom to share that responsibility. The distribution duties and the number of assistant principals at the high school affected the impacts of the implementation of PL-90.

Differences Between First and Second Year of Implementation

Another factor affecting the impacts of the implementation of PL-90 was how long the assistant principals had implemented PL-90. During second interviews, the assistant principals described differences between the first and second year of implementation. Three of the five assistant principals who were interviewed described how their school corporations had reduced the number of observations required for each teacher. All teachers in Sally's high school had one less short observation in year two than during year one. Megan and Mark were required to conduct fewer observations of teachers who were rated highly effective or effective during the previous year. In Megan's high school, these teachers had two fewer walkthrough observations. In Mark's high school, highly effective and effective teachers had two fewer observations: one short and one long. Clare and Paul reported no changes in the number of required observations though reducing the number of observations was discussed in Paul's school corporation.

Reducing the number of observations was not the only change experienced by high school assistant principals during the second year of implementation. To improve the efficiency of the teacher evaluation process, Mark and Paul's districts implemented

new software programs. Mark's new software program allowed teachers to submit artifacts electronically, thus reducing the number of meetings that he held with each teacher. He explained,

> We've streamlined that process where they can submit all their documents online and I can review them online and we don't have to meet unless there's an issue or we have a question. That cuts out one meeting for each teacher and, last year, those meetings were anywhere from 15-30 minutes apiece and I had to meet with 33 teachers. So, by taking that meeting away, that's streamlined the process a little bit.

Paul was able to complete his evaluations more quickly because he used "a new software piece to kind of do our tracking, recording our notes, tagging and coding and everything." This change reduced the amount of time between his observation of a teacher and the post-observation conference.

In addition to these changes which reduced the amount of time that they spent conducting observations and completing evaluations, assistant principals reported changes related to familiarity with their evaluation process. Sally and Megan described how teachers were more calm and comfortable with evaluations during the second year because they knew the expectations. Mark stated that his interactions with teachers "changed significantly but it's just because we're in year 2 and we're more familiar." Paul described asking more reflective questions of teachers and engaging in discussions about instruction because he "wasn't spending as much time piddling around just trying to be compliant." Clare explained that the conversations during the first of implementation were focused on logistics and the rubric. In the second year, conversations are becoming more focused on professional development and she spends a lot of time exploring professional development opportunities for teachers.

Year of Experience and Gender

Because the quantitative phase of the study found that assistant principals with more administrative and classroom teaching experienced less change in involvement in the requirements of PL-90, the researcher searched for evidence to support or disconfirm this finding in the qualitative phase. None of the qualitative evidence from the assistant principals indicates that years of experience had any effect on the impacts of the implementation in regards to the requirements of PL-90, instructional leadership, or any other area. When the researcher probed the qualitative data for gender differences, he thought that instructional leadership and student management differences were possible because Clare and Megan had different experiences in these areas. However, after further examination, those differences were related to job responsibilities and not to gender. Therefore, there was no influence on the impact of the implementation because of years of experience or gender in the qualitative phase of the study. This does not reject the findings of the quantitative phase of this study; it just indicates that those impacts are more complex than simple differences in administrative or teaching experience.

Summary of Qualitative Phase

Research Question #1

In summary, the findings of the qualitative phase of this study concerning Indiana high school assistant principals' perceptions of the impacts of the implementation of PL-90 on their work were:

1. The assistant principals experienced a significant increase in their workload due to an increase in work related to the requirements of PL-90 with little or no decrease in their previous duties.

2. Assistant principals worked 1 to 2 more hours per day and/or worked more on weekends to complete their assigned duties.
3. The assistant principals' level of involvement and time commitment for the requirements of PL-90 increased significantly. They conducted significantly more observations and each extended observations required about four hours of time. Most assistant principals were significantly more involved with development of measures to assess student growth and achievement for teacher evaluations. The assistant principals provided significantly more constructive feedback to teachers after observations. The requirements of the new also required more paperwork to be completed.
4. Most assistant principals experienced no change in involvement with traditional assistant principal roles and responsibilities, while some assistant principals experienced a minimal decrease. Despite the same level of involvement, the assistant principals had significantly less time to complete these tasks. The assistant principals especially adapted how they completed their student management duties and shifted parent communication and meetings to after school hours. They also moved non-evaluation related communication with teachers. Therefore, the assistant principals adjusted how and when they completed these tasks.
5. The assistant principals experienced an increase in involvement with instructional leadership, especially in two core practices of successful school leadership: developing people and improving the teaching and learning program. The assistant principals were significantly more involved in working with teachers to

develop their capacity to improve instruction particularly by leading individual teachers in discussions about classroom practices and the impact on student learning. The assistant principals were significantly involved with improving the teaching and learning program practices directly related to PL-90 requirements but were not involved with the other practices. The assistant principals also had a limited amount of involvement in the core practices of setting directions and refining and aligning the organization.

Research Question #2

The findings of the qualitative phase of this study concerning the kinds of factors that enabled or constrained the impacts of PL-90 were:

1. The evaluation system used by a school district had a significant effect on the assistant principals' experience of the impact of the implementation on their work especially related to the requirements of PL-90. The evaluation systems had large variation in the number of observations required. The different evaluation systems also had different requirements for the student growth and achievement data for teachers.
2. The administrative structure at the high school affected the impacts of the implementation. The distribution of duties impacted the experience of changes related to student management responsibilities. Assistant principals that were responsible for student discipline and attendance issues experienced the implementation differently than those who were not responsible. Assistant principals in schools with fewer assistant principals experienced a greater increase of workload because they were less able to share responsibilities.

3. Years of experience and gender were not found to have an impact on the implementation of PL-90 on the work of assistant principals.

Chapter 5: Discussion of Findings

[The implementation of PL-90] has forced us to get away from the menial tasks and go out there to what really is important, instruction and what's happening in the classroom. So that was beneficial. The time management aspect, we just did not have enough manpower to do it. (Sally during 1st interview)

The work of assistant principals is essential for transforming state policies into school practices (Marshall & Hooley, 2006). Sun (2012) found recent accountability reforms impacted the work of assistant principals in New York state by reducing their involvement in management tasks and increasing their involvement in instructional leadership tasks. Tennessee assistant principals became very involved in the evaluation of teachers when their state instituted new high-stakes teacher evaluation laws (TDOE, 2012). When Indiana piloted PL-90, its new high-stakes teacher evaluation law, pilot administrators reported a significant shift in responsibilities (IDOE, 2012b). Therefore, Indiana high school assistant principals were critical to the implementation of PL-90 and this implementation was expected to impact their work.

The researcher undertook this study to understand how Indiana high school assistant principals perceived the impacts of the implementation of PL-90. What the researcher found was that their work was greatly affected as assistant principals were expected to fully implement the new evaluation systems while maintaining their previous roles and responsibilities. Assistant principals were significantly more involved in instructional leadership activities during the implementation. However, they were still expected to maintain their student and organizational management roles. This increased involvement with instructional leadership without a reduction in other duties caused the

assistant principals to become overwhelmed. The previous chapter described the impacts of the implementation related to the requirements of PL-90, the traditional assistant principal roles and responsibilities, and instructional leadership. Additionally, the previous chapter explained factors that affected the impacts of the implementation. In this chapter, the researcher will highlight and discuss further some of the most important findings. The researcher will relate these findings to previous research and provide implications and recommendations for practice, policy, and research.

Assistant Principals as Instructional Leaders

Both phases of this mixed-methods study found that Indiana high school assistant principals were significantly more involved with instructional leadership activities during the implementation of PL-90. These assistant principals experienced a great increase in work expectations related to the requirements of PL-90 including teacher evaluations, classroom observations, and individual meetings with teachers. Additionally, assistant principals were more involved with helping teachers reflect on the impact of their instructional practices and with encouraging teachers to use data in their work. This section of Chapter 5 will describe the redefined instructional leadership role of assistant principals and factors that may have impacted their socialization into this redefined role.

Redefined Instructional Leadership Role

The instructional leadership role of Indiana high school assistant principals was redefined during the implementation of PL-90. Previous studies found that assistant principal had very little time to work on curriculum and instruction related tasks (Oleszewski et al., 2012) and that assistant principals did not have enough time to work closely with teachers during the evaluation process (Kimball & Milanowski, 2009;

Looney, 2011; Tuytens & Devos, 2011). Recent dissertation studies of Indiana secondary school assistant principals found that their primary tasks were focused on student and organizational management (Grate, 2005; Scott, 2011). During the interviews for this study, Sam, Sally, and Mark stated that they had almost no instructional leadership responsibilities prior to the implementation of PL-90. Prior to the implementation of high-stakes teacher evaluations, the instructional leadership role of assistant principals was either non-existent or extremely limited.

However, this dissertation study found that during the implementation of PL-90, Indiana high school assistant principals perceived that their primary tasks included conducting lesson-length and short classroom observations, providing constructive feedback to teachers after observations, and assigning teacher effectiveness ratings in addition to supervising students during the school day. Moreover, assistant principals stated that they utilized the specific evaluation rubrics when conducting the observations and providing feedback to teachers. These findings mirror the conclusions from the Tennessee First to the Top (TDOE, 2012) and Indian's pilot (IDOE, 2012b) studies but are very different than previous studies. The growth of the instructional leadership role for assistant principals did not end with being involved in the teacher evaluation process; assistant principals reported more involvement with other instructional leadership practices as well. Assistant principals reported that they provided individual support for teachers and helped the teachers to reflect on their work. Post-observation conferences were used to provide opportunities for teachers to grow and improve as educators. Teachers were encouraged to use data to assess the impact of their instruction on student learning. Data analysis was not limited to individual classroom data but also included

school-wide data. Assistant principals perceived that they demonstrated high expectations for teacher's work with all students by focusing on the link between teacher instruction and student learning.

This level of involvement with instructional leadership was a drastic change for many assistant principals. Before the implementation, assistant principals were primarily responsible for maintaining the status quo through student and organizational management. During the implementation, they reported were observing and evaluating teachers. Assistant principals were leading conversations with individual and group of teachers about the impacts of instructional practices on student learning and achievement. They were organizing and leading professional development opportunities for teachers based upon the teachers' needs. Assistant principals reported that they were in classrooms more and in their offices less than they had been in previous years. Assistant principals were involved with developing teachers' capacity to improve student performance. They were involved with improving the teaching and learning programs in their schools. In summary, Indiana high school assistant principal who implemented PL-90 reported having a redefined instructional leadership role that focused on observing and evaluating teachers, providing constructive feedback and support to teachers, and analyzing student growth and achievement data to reflect on the impact of teacher instruction on student learning.

Socialization into the Redefined Role

Because of this drastic change in the instructional leadership role, Indiana high school assistant principals experienced socialization into this redefined role. The participants were not directly asked how they were socialized, or acquired "the

knowledge, skills, and dispositions necessary to enact the role" (Crow, 2006, p. 311). Rather, the assistant principals described how they understood their new role and what they learned to do differently.

Previous research has described how new assistant principals were influenced by a complex system of actors both inside and outside of school during their socialization process (Armstrong, 2009; Matthews & Crow, 2010). The sources of socialization included principals, teachers, students, support staff, central office personnel, and state authorities (Armstrong, 2009). This socialization occurred through rites, rituals, rules, rewards, and sanctions (Armstrong, 2010). Based upon how the assistant principals described their understanding and enactment of their instructional leadership role, the researcher made the conjecture that the mandates of state government, the decisions of district-level leaders, and the leadership of high school principals influenced their socialization into this new role.

Two ways that government agencies impact the socialization of assistant principals are through the reforms and laws that "increase legal responsibility and accountability" and "exacerbate traditional tensions between administrators and teachers" (Armstrong, 2009, p. 5). With the PL-90, the government mandates impacted assistant principals by requiring a significant increase in time and capital to complete all of the mandated evaluations. Before PL-90 many school district evaluation plans required few observations and evaluations of experienced teachers. Only teachers with limited experience in a school corporation were required to be evaluated annually. District-level leaders influence assistant principals because they "control resources" and "have the power to select, promote, hire, evaluate, sanction and dismiss" (Armstrong, 2009, p. 58).

When district-level decisions were made in selecting a staff evaluation plan, many districts selected evaluation plans that required multiple observations of every teacher every year. Previously, principals had been the main, or only, building-level administrator involved with instructional leadership and conducting teacher observations and evaluations. With these new requirements, principals could not possibly complete all of this work on their own. Principals influence the socialization of assistant principals in "three major ways: assigning tasks, encouraging role images, and providing support" (Matthews & Crow, 2010, p. 308). During the implementation of PL-90, principals delegated some of the responsibility for teacher evaluations to their assistant principals. Principals also exerted their influence on assistant principals by encouraging specific role images. Thus, the assistant principals' descriptions of the mandates of PL-90, the decisions at the district level, and the leadership of principals demonstrate how these three forces impacted the socialization of assistant principals into their redefined instructional leadership role.

Mandates of PL-90. Mandates of PL-90 were rules that defined what instructional leadership was for the assistant principals. When the assistant principals in the qualitative phase were asked to describe how the new educator evaluation law impacted their work as instructional leaders, their descriptions were closely aligned to the four components mandated by PL-90. Therefore, their understanding of their instructional leadership role was based upon the rules set forth by the State of Indiana.

The specific components of a staff evaluation plan as mandated by PL-90 translated into changes in instructional leadership involvement for assistant principals. The first requirement that evaluations must occur annually for all certified staff members

precipitated this change in involvement for assistant principals. Because of the amount of time required, evaluation of teachers became an integral part of the work of assistant principals. Assistant principals were no longer responsible for a couple of evaluations of new teachers. Instead, assistant principals were responsible for completing the evaluations of many new and experienced teachers. Assistant principals experienced a great increase in the number of evaluations that they had to complete every year.

The second requirement of staff performance evaluation plans under PL-90 was that objective measures of student achievement and growth must significantly inform the evaluation. This component also includes the provision that state assessment results must be used in state-tested subject areas. At the time of implementation, the IDOE only assessed high school students in three subjects: algebra I, biology, and English 10. Therefore, most high teachers were not teaching courses with state assessments. Hence, this requirement created the need for student assessment and data management in high schools. Many high school assistant principals approved assessments for evaluation purposes and assisted teachers in analyzing this assessment data. Assistant principals encouraged teachers to use data in their work and collaborated with teachers during data collection and analysis. Sally, Mark, Megan, and Paul described significant involvement with assisting teachers in assessment development and data analysis. Assistant principals became responsible for assessment design and data analysis for evaluation purposes.

The third mandate component was that evaluations must include rigorous measurements of effectiveness including observations. Lesson-length and short observations became a major responsibility of assistant principals. Assistant principals spent considerable time observing teachers and documenting those observations. The

assistant principals in the qualitative phase of this study described a substantial increase in the number of classroom observations that they were required to conduct. Assistant principals spent considerably more time in classrooms conducting observations than they had in previous years. In addition to conducting the observations, assistant principals were also documenting their observations and mapping their observation notes to the evaluation rubric. This process took a significant amount of time and assistant principals reported spending less time with their families in the evenings and on the weekends while they completed this paperwork. Assistant principals' time became consumed with observing teachers and completing the required paperwork.

The fourth component of a staff performance evaluation plan was that the evaluation must include recommendations for improvement. Assistant principals utilized their observation notes and evaluation rubrics to identify areas of strength and areas of improvement for teachers. During post-observation conferences, they employed this information to provide more constructive feedback to teachers and to develop their recommendations for improvement. In order to support teacher growth, assistant principals were also more involved in providing professional development for teachers. Assistant principals organized professional development activities for their teaching staff to improve instruction. They used observation data to develop professional development plans to best serve their staffs. Assistant principals were more involved with providing recommendations for improvement and providing the support teachers needed to improve in those areas.

These areas of increased instructional leadership activities were the direct result of the requirements of PL-90. Observing and evaluating teachers was required for every

teacher every year. Providing constructive feedback and support was necessary to provide the recommendations for improvement. Analyzing student growth and achievement data to reflect on the impact of teacher instruction on student learning was important for required student data component of the new staff evaluation plans. Each of these areas of increased involvement in instructional leadership was directly related to the components of the mandated staff performance evaluation plans.

However, there was not an increase in involvement in instructional leadership practices that were not mandated by the new high-stakes teacher evaluation law. The assistant principals were not required to develop a shared vision for their schools or to build productive relations with families, community members, and policymakers. Therefore, assistant principals were not more involved with the core practices of successful school leadership related to these areas: setting directions and refining and aligning the organization. Therefore, the assistant principals' socialization into their new instructional leadership role was influenced by the rules of PL-90 which mandated which practices of instructional leadership increased.

District-level decisions. Assistant principals are influenced by district-level leaders' ability to control resources. District-level leaders also have the ability to promote, sanction, and dismiss assistant principals (Armstrong, 2009). Therefore, assistant principals are socialized to meet the guidelines and expectations set forth by the district-level leadership. With the implementation of PL-90, the guidelines and expectations were determined by the staff performance evaluation plan selected. Further influence on the work of the assistant principal entailed the use of resources to purchase or not purchase computer programs for the implementation.

The decisions by district-level leaders when selecting a staff performance evaluation plan also impacted the work experience of the assistant principals. The decision on which evaluation plan to select was the responsibility of each Indiana school corporation. School districts were provided with many options in choosing an evaluation plan that met the requirements of PL-90. School corporations could use the IDOE-developed RISE. They could slightly modify the RISE system and use corporation-modified RISE. School corporations could implement nationally-recognized TAP (System for Teacher and Student Achievement) or PAR (Peer Assistance and Review Teacher Evaluation System). Lastly, a school corporation could develop their own plan that met the specifications of the law and submit the plan to IDOE for approval. This district-level choice of evaluation plan impacted the work of Indiana high school assistant principals.

As seen in the previous chapter, the evaluation system selected by the school district affected the impact of the implementation on the work of assistant principals. There was a great disparity in the required number of observations for each teacher depending upon the evaluation plan selected. Megan conducted over 300 total observations while Clare conducted only 32. This discrepancy was the direct result of a district-level decision in selecting an evaluation plan. Additionally, the student growth and achievement data portion of the district-selected evaluation plan impacted the work of assistant principals. Some assistant principals, like Mark, were very involved with helping teachers design assessments and analyzing the data of those assessments. Other assistant principals, like Clare, were not as involved with student growth and achievement data analysis. Moreover, the district's emphasis within the evaluation

system impacted the work of the assistant principals. Megan's "positive assumption" and Sam's "teacher artifacts" were directly related to the district-level emphases within their teacher evaluation system. In addition to selecting the evaluation plan, district-level decisions were made to determine what, if any, computer programs would be used by building-level administrators.

The findings of the quantitative phase study indicated that assistant principals in school districts that selected RISE or corporation-modified RISE experienced a greater increase in involvement with the requirements of PL-90. They had a greater increase in involvement conducting classroom observations and assigning teacher effectiveness ratings. In the qualitative phase of the study, the assistant principals using RISE and corporation-modified RISE explained their significant involvement with developing student assessments for teacher evaluation purposes and assisting teachers with analyzing their data to determine student growth and achievement for different student groups. Therefore, assistant principals implementing RISE and corporation-modified RISE experienced a greater impact on their work due to the district's decision to respond to the requirements of PL-90. This intensified experience of the mandates of PL-90 may explain why these assistant principals had a statistically-significant reduction in job satisfaction during the implementation as compared to assistant principals using other evaluation plans. The assistant principals implementing RISE and corporation-modified RISE may have felt that they were fulfilling the mandates of a new law rather than feeling that they were increasing their instructional leadership role.

On the other hand, assistant principals like Clare who were implementing TAP did not experience the same level of impact. Even though teachers in RISE and TAP

schools were observed four and five times respectively, Clare conducted many less observations than the assistant principals at the RISE schools. This difference is directly related to the fact that Clare's TAP school hired master teachers to assist with the evaluations. Therefore, Clare shared the increased workload due to the mandates of PL-90 with the master teachers rather than shouldering the burden herself. In addition, TAP uses school-wide data for determining student growth and achievement instead of using locally-developed assessments. Hence, Clare was not involved with developing local assessments and analyzing that data. Moreover, TAP's focus on using weekly cluster meetings to provide professional development for teachers meant that Clare was more involved with providing professional development than the other assistant principals interviewed. Therefore, Clare's experience of implementing of PL-90 was different than the other assistant principals because of her school district's decision to implement TAP rather one of the other options.

Decisions by district-level leaders to use a corporation-developed evaluation plan also impacted the work of the assistant principals. Because the plans were developed by the individual school corporations, the number of observations was based upon a local decision rather than being required by an outside organization. School corporations could choose for teachers to be observed only one time or be observed many times each year. Sam's corporation-developed plan required three extended observations while Megan's required two extended and seven short observations. This disparity affected the impact on the work of assistant principals. Additionally, some corporation-developed plans emphasized different elements. Sam's school corporation decided to emphasize teacher participation in the evaluation process. Therefore, teacher-submitted artifacts to

demonstrate effectiveness were important in Sam's conversations with teachers. Megan's school corporation emphasized the teachers would be considered effective for each indicator unless there was contrary evidence. This is in comparison to many of the evaluation plans who assumed that teachers were not effective unless effectiveness on the indicator was observed by the evaluator. These different emphases affected the conversations that Sam and Megan had with their teachers. The school corporation selection of evaluation plans impacted the assistant principals' experience of the implementation of PL-90.

Another district-level decision that impacted the experience of assistant principals was the selection of a computer program or application to assist with observation note-taking and with mapping those notes to individual indicators. Some assistant principals completed these tasks with paper-and-pencil while other assistant principals took notes on laptops or iPads and mapped their notes to indicators with a simple click. Some of the evaluation computer programs also allowed teachers to submit artifacts electronically rather than submitting paper copies. Mark credited the online program his school corporation purchased for the second year of implementation with reducing his workload by at least 30 hours in the first semester. He described a streamlined process for teachers to submit paperwork saving him hours of meetings with teachers. Different computer programs and applications had different features for note-taking, mapping to indicators, and uploading artifacts. District-level decisions in selecting an evaluation plan and computer program to assist building-level administrators impacted the socialization of assistant principals into their redefined instructional leadership role.

Leadership of building principals. Building principals also impacted the experiences of assistant principals during the implementation of PL-90. Principals can exercise great clout over assistant principals because they assign duties to them and evaluate their performance (Armstrong, 2009; Hausman et al., 2002; Lee et al., 2009; Wong, 2009). During the implementation of PL-90 the authority of principals to assign specific duties impacted the experiences of the assistant principals. As discussed in the previous chapter, the number of assistant principals and the specific duties assigned to each assistant principal impacted the implementation. Principals are primarily responsible for assigning duties to each assistant principal. Because the other assistant principal had more student management responsibilities, Megan's principal assigned her more teachers to observe and evaluate than he assigned to the other assistant principal. Thus, conducting observations and evaluations made a greater impact on Megan and her work. Paul's principal reassigned his drug testing and some supervision duties to the dean allowing Paul to have more time to observe and evaluate teachers. When a teacher was placed on an improvement plan at Clare's school, the principal decided that all four assistant principals would observe the teacher over the next eight weeks. If the principal had decided only one or two of the assistant principals would share this responsibility, the experience would have been different for Clare. Principals were also responsible for assigning the specific teachers which each assistant principal observed and evaluated. The power of principals to assign duties and teachers to evaluate impacted the implementation experience of the assistant principals.

The principals were also responsible for conducting the state-mandated annual evaluations of the assistant principals. Assistant principals are influenced by the

principal's ability to provide or deny support, to give encouragement and advice, and to mentor (Armstrong, 2009; Matthews & Crow, 2010). These influences can be experienced through the evaluation process for assistant principals. Additionally, the principal's power during evaluation reinforces the unstated rules constraining the behavior of assistant principals described by Marshall and Hooley (2006). Assistant principals are socialized to limit risk taking, remake policy quietly, not display divergent views, keep disputes quiet, and build administrator team trust. Failure to adhere to these unstated rules could have a negative impact on an assistant principal's annual evaluation. Therefore, the assistant principals implemented the observations and evaluations required by PL-90 under the direct supervision of the principal. Hence, the building principals had great influence on the work of high school assistant principals.

Role taking or role making? Many researchers have found that assistant principals wanted to be more involved with instructional leadership (Barnett et al., 2012; Celikten, 2001; Cranston et al., 2004; Hausman et al., 2002; Lee et al., 2009). However, the increase in instructional leadership involvement during the implementation of PL-90 did not derive from the assistant principals actively engaging in the reconstructing of their role in school. Instead, their new instructional leadership role developed from the mandates of state government, the decisions of district-level leaders, and the leadership of high school principals. Therefore, the socialization of Indiana high school assistant principals to their redefined instructional leadership role during the implementation of PL-90 was very similar to socialization by role taking of new assistant principals. (See Chapter 2 for more information on role taking and role making.) Even though the role of the assistant principal was redefined and role taking involves a continuation of the

organizational status quo, the assistant principals were not active partners in developing this change in the work experience. Rather, the new mandate precipitated the change while district-level decisions and building principals determined the specific impacts on the work of assistant principals. Thus, assistant principals were limited in their ability to reconstruct their roles and change the culture of schools by a complex system of actors both inside and outside of school. During the first two years of implementation of PL-90, assistant principals were socialized into their new instructional leadership role through a role-taking socialization process.

Overwhelmed Assistant Principals

Even though some scholars have recommended that assistant principals become more involved in instructional leadership activities (Barnett et al., 2012; Greenfield, 1985; Marshall & Hooley, 2006) and many researchers found that assistant principals wanted to be more involved with instructional leadership (Barnett et al., 2012; Celikten, 2001; Cranston et al., 2004; Hausman et al., 2002; Lee et al., 2009), more than 35% of assistant principals who implemented PL-90 reported that they were less satisfied with their jobs while less than 21% were more satisfied. Additionally, the assistant principals who were interviewed stated that the new high-stakes teacher evaluation law was beneficial, but they still described its implementation as overwhelming, cumbersome, stressful, onerous, and absolutely brutal. Sally summed up these apparently contradictory conclusions when she stated that PL-90 forced her to focus on "what really is important, instruction and what's happening in the classroom" but her school "just did not have enough manpower to do it." This section of Chapter 5 will describe how instructional

leadership for assistant principals increased job responsibilities which led to assistant principals not having enough time to complete all of their work.

Increased Responsibilities

Even though the instructional leadership role of assistant principals was expanded during the implementation of PL-90, assistant principals reported that the organizational and student management responsibilities were not affected. Assistant principals were still expected to monitor and enforce student discipline and attendance policies. Assistant principals were still very involved with supervising students during the school day and after school hours. Assistant principals maintained their duties related to standardized testing, use of school facilities, and organization of clubs and student activities. Only two of the 6 assistant principals interviewed reported any reduction in their previous job expectations during the implementation of PL-90. Therefore, the new instructional leadership expectations for assistant principals were additionally assigned responsibilities rather than a change in responsibilities. Assistant principals reported having more responsibilities instead of changing responsibilities.

The IDOE recognized the potential that school corporations may not have the capacity to meet the time commitment and evaluation requirements of the PL-90 (M. Schlegel, personal communication, October 21, 2011). Based upon the findings of the Indiana pilot study, the IDOE (2012b) recommended that school corporation redistribute administrative duties of building-level administrators. The IDOE suggested that schools shift unnecessary administrative duties to existing staff or hire additional staff to complete these tasks. This IDOE suggestion ignores the fact that Indiana schools already made significant staff reductions due to decreased state funding during the recent

recession. Since this funding had not been restored, school corporations did not have the funding to hire additional staff to accommodate the new requirements of PL-90. Therefore, assistant principals, like Megan, were unable to "delegate something differently to someone else" because the school was already understaffed. Moreover, school corporations were not able to hire additional staff members. This combination of factors contributed to assistant principals maintaining their administrative and management duties while adding their new instructional leadership requirements.

Not Enough Time

The additional time commitment needed to successfully implement PL-90 meant assistant principals had less time during the school day to complete their organizational and student management tasks. During the interviews, assistant principals lamented how the reduced time to complete student management tasks hindered their work. They expressed frustration with the reduction in the quality of their work because they did not have enough time to do it as well as they had in the past. Sally and Sam described how they were unable to keep up with the attendance and discipline demands because of lack of time. Because they did not have enough time, student misbehavior was sometimes not addressed in a timely manner by the assistant principals. Mark described how he spent less time with students when disciplining those who violated school rules. Rather than helping students to learn self-discipline and to make better decisions in the future, he just assigned them a consequence and sent them back to class.

In addition to having insufficient time to properly complete organizational and student management tasks, there was insufficient time during the school day to complete their new instructional leadership tasks. Therefore, assistant principals reported working

longer hours each day and also working more hours on the weekend. These additional hours took time away from other personal activities. Mark reported having less time to spend with his children because he was working more hours at school. Megan reported getting only four hours of sleep a night during May because of the demands of completing teacher evaluations and coordinating state testing. With the new observation and evaluation requirements mandated by PL-90, assistant principals did not have enough time to complete all of their previous and new responsibilities. The implementation of PL-90 resulted in assistant principals maintaining their traditional organizational and student management roles and responsibilities while adding time-consuming instructional leadership roles and responsibilities leading assistant principals to work longer because there was not enough time.

Will This Reform Last?

Cuban (1990) and Tyack (1991) found that, despite policymakers attempts to reform public schools, few reforms actually changed school and classroom practices. The initial findings of this study indicate that PL-90 may be one of the reforms that will change school practices. The quantitative phase found that assistant principals implementing PL-90 were significantly more involved with the requirements of the new law and with instructional leadership activities. Assistant principals were more involved with observing classrooms, providing constructive feedback to teachers, and assigning teacher effectiveness ratings to individual teachers. They were also more involved with two of the four core practices of successful school leadership: developing people and improving the teaching and learning programs. Despite these initial findings, I question the sustainability of these reforms.

Fewer Required Observations

Despite the findings by Kane et al. (2012) that effective teacher evaluations require multiple observations, some Indiana school corporations are reducing the number of required observations. After one year of implementation, three of the 5 assistant principals interviewed near the end of the second year of implementation indicated that their school corporations reduced the number of required observations for year two. Sally stated that her school corporation changed from RISE to corporation-modified RISE and reduced the number of observations required for all teachers. Mark and Megan reported that their school corporations reduced the number of observations required for teachers who were evaluated as effective or highly effective during the previous year. Furthermore, Paul stated that his school corporation discussed reducing the number of observations but decided against changing after one year. Therefore, 80% of the assistant principals who participated in both interviews worked in school corporations who reduced or considered reducing the number of observations. This finding indicates that school corporations may be reducing the impact of this reform after one year. If this reduction in the number continues for a few more years, Indiana schools may return to the status quo before PL-90 was implemented. Five years from now, experienced teachers could be observed only one time annually with new teachers being observed twice.

Assistant Principal Burnout

Part of the decision to reduce the number of observations may be related to the impact of the number of observations on building administrators. District-level leaders may have listened to principals and assistant principals who described how overwhelmed

they were by this implementation. Prior to the implementation of high-stakes teacher evaluation laws, Armstrong (2009) described the educational landscape as a place where the stress and workload of assistant principals were increasing. During the implementation of PL-90, the stress and workload increased even more. Assistant principals cannot sustain the workload forever. At some point, Megan may not be able to survive on only four hours of sleep per night. Mark may decide that spending two less hours a day with his own children is not worth continuing in his position. The lack of time and increased workload may lead to burnout for administrators which may lead to increased turnover and fewer individuals entering school administration. On the other hand, assistant principals may cope by just being compliant with the observations without implementing teacher evaluations with fidelity. Neither quitting nor being compliant is beneficial to sustaining the reforms of PL-90.

Implications and Recommendations

This study focused on the perceptions of high school assistant principals about their work experiences during the implementation of Indiana's new high-stakes teacher evaluation law. The assistant principals described how they were significantly involved with implementing the requirements of PL-90. Because the requirements were closely aligned with instructional leadership practices, assistant principals were also more involved with instructional leadership than before the implementation. Despite these new responsibilities, assistant principals maintained their traditional assistant principal roles and responsibilities. This increased workload meant that assistant principals did not have enough time to complete all of their assigned tasks. The purpose of this section of

Chapter 5 is to provide implications and recommendations for practice, policy, and research based upon these findings.

Practice

For assistant principals who might have similar experiences of implementing high-stakes teacher evaluations, the discussions in Chapter 4 and 5 could benefit their understanding of their experiences. Assistant principals who understand these experiences can undertake role making by becoming active partners in restructuring their instructional leadership role in school. Many assistant principals have desired to become instructional leaders (Barnett et al., 2012; Celikten, 2001; Cranston et al., 2004; Hausman et al., 2002; Lee et al., 2009) and the implementation of PL-90 provides an opportunity to create an instructional leadership role that aligns with their own values and expectations rather than the specific mandates of the law. The core practices of successful school leadership as described by Leithwood and Seashore-Louis (2012) provide a broader definition of instructional leadership than PL-90 which focuses primarily on the core practices of developing people and improving the teaching and learning program. The core practice of setting direction includes building a shared, inspiring vision among all stakeholders (Day et al., 2011). In addition to their work with teachers, assistant principals can decide to build and communicate this vision with students, parents, and community members. Not only can assistant principals build the shared vision with other stakeholders, they can also involve the school community in the school's improvement efforts. The core practice of refining and aligning the organization focuses on engaging parents, community members, state policymakers, district leaders, and other school leaders to support and sustain teacher and student performance (Leithwood & Riehl,

2005). Informed assistant principals can decide to expand their current instructional leadership role to include involvement with all stakeholders.

The findings of this study also indicate the need for assistant principals to reorganize their student and organizational management responsibilities to become more efficient and to balance their new performance evaluation demands with their existing duties. Sam reorganized his week by focusing on teacher evaluation on Monday, Tuesday, and Wednesday and on student management on Thursday and Friday in order to accomplish all of his assigned tasks. This example may assist other assistant principals in considering how they can reorganize their work. The reorganization may also require involvement from other stakeholders including principals, secretaries, teachers, parents, and policymakers. The assistant principals may need secretaries to complete more of their administrative tasks to allow more time for instructional leadership. Teachers, parents, and students need to understand that assistant principals are not as readily available as they were previously. Assistant principals can work with stakeholders to expand their instructional leadership role and reorganize student and organizational management responsibilities.

For principals, the findings of this research may resonate with some of their experiences of implementing high-stakes teacher evaluations. Even though principals have been involved with the teacher evaluation process (Peterson, 2004), initial studies of the new high-stakes teacher evaluations have found that principals spent more time on evaluations and placed a greater emphasis on instructional leadership (IDOE, 2012a). Therefore, principals may also have experienced an increased workload due to the implementation of PL-90. Like assistant principals, they may have adapted their

enactment of other responsibilities because teacher evaluations placed constraints on their time. Moreover, principals may benefit from this study by understanding how they can expand their instructional leadership role to include all stakeholders and by understanding how they may be able to reorganize their other roles and responsibilities.

This research also provides principals with an explanation of the experience of some assistant principals and the principals' impact on these experiences. Principals can exercise great influence over assistant principals because they assign duties to them and evaluate their performance (Armstrong, 2009; Hausman et al., 2002; Lee et al., 2009; Wong, 2009). The principal's ability to influence assistant principals by providing or denying support, giving encouragement and advice, and mentoring (Armstrong, 2009; Matthews & Crow, 2010) can be used to co-create a more effective instructional leadership role for assistant principals and help assistant principals to balance this new role with their existing duties. Principals can distribute leadership differently to assistant principals and teacher leaders to ease the burden on assistant principals. Principals can also encourage assistant principals to expand their instructional leadership to include all stakeholders. Principals who encourage and support the instructional leadership role of assistant principals are a key factor to enhance their instructional leadership activities (Celikten, 2001).

Policy

For district-level policymakers, the findings of this study elucidate their important role in the implementation of high-stakes teacher evaluations. The selection of an evaluation system had a great impact on the work of assistant principals. Each extended observation that an evaluation plan requires equates to about four hours of work for a

building administrator. District-level leaders must balance the benefits of more observations with the capacity of school personnel to conduct them. This study also highlights the challenges of increasing the workload at the building level without providing additional resources. School districts that prioritize improving teaching and learning purposefully invested resources "with a special emphasis on instructional leadership as a primary target of investment" (Knapp, Copland, Honig, Plecki, & Portin, 2010, p. 7). These resources included money, time, materials, and expertise in pursuit of improvement of learning. Assistant principals were overwhelmed because their time was a limited resource. Due to previous staffing cuts, assistant principals were unable to redistribute their work. District-level leaders need to consider how they can invest in the staffing needed to successfully implement the new performance evaluations. Additionally, district-level leaders can work directly with building leaders including assistant principals to help them grow as instructional leaders. District-level policymakers should consider their important role in implementing staff performance evaluation plans.

For state-level policymakers, the findings of this study provide insight into some unintended consequences of high-stakes teacher evaluations. The law became an unfunded mandate because of the significantly increased workload without additional funding. Increased funding for schools is essential to the long-term sustainability of high-stakes teacher evaluation laws. To adhere to the requirements of the law, schools must redistribute work or cut back on other activities (e.g parent conferences). This redistribution can only occur by hiring additional personnel which requires additional state funding.

Another unintended consequence of PL-90 was that assistant principals had to adapt to the time constraints caused by this implementation. Assistant principals had less time to spend as the schools' disciplinarians and attendance officers causing them to feel that the quality of this work suffered. Assistant principals had less time to build relationship with students and help students develop strategies to improve their behavior. This could have a negative long-term effect on student behavior. Moreover, assistant principals had to adapt when and how they worked with parents and community members. Assistant principals were less timely in responding to parents' questions and concerns which could have an adverse effect on their relationship. Since community members are most likely to contact assistant principals when they are in need of help and resources (Armstrong, 2009), the time constraints on assistant principals can also have a negative impact on the school's relationship with the community. Therefore, an unintended consequence of PL-90 is that the time constraints caused by the commitment to teacher evaluations may have an adverse effect on the school's relationship with students, parents, and community members.

Research

For researchers, this study reinforces the need for more research on the important role of assistant principals. Further research can explore and develop an instructional leadership framework for assistant principals. This study found that the instructional leadership role of Indiana high school assistant principals during the first two years of implementation of high-stakes teacher evaluations primarily focused on observing teachers, providing constructive feedback after those observations, encouraging teachers to use data in their work, and working with teachers to improve their instruction. A

follow-up study can examine assistant principals' perceptions of their instructional leadership after PL-90 has been implemented for three or more years. Further research can explore whether assistant principals become more involved with the Leithwood and Seashore-Louis's (2012) core practices of setting directions and refining and aligning the organization.

Additionally, research can be conducted to examine the relationship between the work of assistant principals and other school data. Principal use of Leithwood's core practices of successful school leadership have been found to be positively correlated with teacher and student outcomes. Principal use of the core practices of successful school leadership have been correlated with improved teacher performance, motivation (Leithwood et al., 2008), and self-efficacy (Leithwood, 2007). Teacher stress and burnout were reduced when principals use the core practices (Leithwood, 2007). Increased student achievement in language arts, math, science, and social studies are positively correlated with the principals' use of the core practices (Valentine & Prater, 2011). Further research can be conducted to examine if the correlations also exist with assistant principal use of the four core practices. Additionally, research can explore assistant principal instructional leadership with other student outcomes like attendance and graduation rates and student behavior outcomes. These studies could be used to develop an instructional framework for assistant principals.

Additional research is also needed concerning the implementation of high-stakes teacher evaluations. Further research can examine if other stakeholders perceive the impact on the work of assistant principals in similar ways. Research can examine how principals view the instructional leadership role of assistant principals and the impact of

high-stake evaluations on their traditional student and organizational management roles. A follow-up study can examine assistant principals' perceptions of PL-90 after it has been implemented for three or more years. Research can examine the impact of the high-stakes teacher evaluation on assistant principal stress, burnout, and turnover. Research can explore how assistant principals are coping with the changes in their work as a result of these evaluations. These studies can be used to develop a better understanding of the work of assistant principals and the impact of high-stakes teacher evaluations.

Conclusion

This study found that, during the implementation of PL-90, Indiana high school assistant principals were more involved with teacher observations and evaluations, providing constructive feedback to teachers, and rating teacher effectiveness. Thus, the instructional leadership role of assistant principals was redefined to fulfill the requirements of PL-90. Despite the increased involvement with instructional leadership, assistant principals maintained their traditional organization and student management responsibilities. Assistant principals became overwhelmed during the implementation because of the greatly increased workload and limited time during the school day. These impacts of implementation were affected by a variety of factors including the evaluation system used and the structure of their administrative team. Indiana high school assistant principals implemented PL-90 by focusing on teaching and learning in their buildings despite having limited time to complete the new responsibilities and their traditional management roles. Thus, during the implementation of the high-stakes teacher evaluation law, Indiana high school assistant principals became overwhelmed instructional leaders.

Appendix A: Survey Questionnaire

2013 Indiana High School Assistant Principal Survey

The purpose of this study is to develop a better understanding of the work of Indiana high school assistant principals in the current environment of high-stakes accountability for students, schools, and educators.

All AP's who complete this survey are eligible to be entered into a random drawing for one of four $50 gift cards. Winners will be notified by the end of July.

All AP's who complete the survey may also request a copy of the summary findings which will be emailed at the end of the study (expected in spring or summer of 2014).

Click on "Next" to participate in the 2013 Indiana High School Assistant Principal Survey.

2013 Indiana High School Assistant Principal Survey

PART I: The following questions are designed to provide a profile of your work as a high school assistant principal. It consists of 40 statements that may or may not reflect your leadership practices and actions.

In your work as a high school assistant principal in the 2012-13 school year, to what extent were you involved with...

***1. Disciplining students who violate school rules**

◯ Not at all ◯ Very little ◯ Somewhat ◯ Very ◯ Signficiantly

***2. Conducting lesson-length classroom observations**

◯ Not at all ◯ Very little ◯ Somewhat ◯ Very ◯ Signficiantly

***3. Conducting short classroom observations (less than 15 minutes)**

◯ Not at all ◯ Very little ◯ Somewhat ◯ Very ◯ Signficiantly

***4. Engaging teachers in decision-making that affects their instructional work**

◯ Not at all ◯ Very little ◯ Somewhat ◯ Very ◯ Signficiantly

***5. Recognizing the accomplishments of individual staff members**

◯ Not at all ◯ Very little ◯ Somewhat ◯ Very ◯ Signficiantly

***6. Communicating to all stakeholders a sense of purpose and vision for the school**

◯ Not at all ◯ Very little ◯ Somewhat ◯ Very ◯ Signficiantly

***7. Calculating student achievement and growth data for individual teachers.**

◯ Not at all ◯ Very little ◯ Somewhat ◯ Very ◯ Signficiantly

***8. Supervising students during the school day (e.g. passing periods, lunch)**

◯ Not at all ◯ Very little ◯ Somewhat ◯ Very ◯ Signficiantly

***9. Supervising students after school hours (e.g. extracurricular activities, dances)**

◯ Not at all ◯ Very little ◯ Somewhat ◯ Very ◯ Signficiantly

***10. Creating a welcoming environment for parents and community members**

◯ Not at all ◯ Very little ◯ Somewhat ◯ Very ◯ Signficiantly

***11. Responding to individual staff member's expertise and needs**

◯ Not at all ◯ Very little ◯ Somewhat ◯ Very ◯ Signficiantly

2013 Indiana High School Assistant Principal Survey

***12. Clarifying the relationship between the school's vision and improvement initiatives**

○ Not at all ○ Very little ○ Somewhat ○ Very ○ Signficiantly

***13. Developing methods to measure student growth for certificated employees**

○ Not at all ○ Very little ○ Somewhat ○ Very ○ Signficiantly

***14. Monitoring student attendance and enforcing school attendance policies**

○ Not at all ○ Very little ○ Somewhat ○ Very ○ Signficiantly

***15. Providing constructive feedback to teachers after observations**

○ Not at all ○ Very little ○ Somewhat ○ Very ○ Signficiantly

***16. Developing and maintaining connections with state policymakers**

○ Not at all ○ Very little ○ Somewhat ○ Very ○ Signficiantly

***17. Making explicit reference to school goals when making decisions**

○ Not at all ○ Very little ○ Somewhat ○ Very ○ Signficiantly

***18. Dealing with conflicts that arise among teacher-student-parent-support staff**

○ Not at all ○ Very little ○ Somewhat ○ Very ○ Signficiantly

***19. Participating in special education conferences**

○ Not at all ○ Very little ○ Somewhat ○ Very ○ Signficiantly

***20. Encouraging staff to use data in their work**

○ Not at all ○ Very little ○ Somewhat ○ Very ○ Signficiantly

***21. Providing staff individual support to improve their teaching practices**

○ Not at all ○ Very little ○ Somewhat ○ Very ○ Signficiantly

***22. Encouraging staff to pursue their own goals for professional learning**

○ Not at all ○ Very little ○ Somewhat ○ Very ○ Signficiantly

***23. Demonstrating high expectations for staff's work with all students**

○ Not at all ○ Very little ○ Somewhat ○ Very ○ Signficiantly

***24. Organizing and administering standardized tests (e.g. Core 40 ECA, AP, PSAT)**

○ Not at all ○ Very little ○ Somewhat ○ Very ○ Signficiantly

2013 Indiana High School Assistant Principal Survey

***25. Participating in the hiring of new staff members**

Not at all | Very little | Somewhat | Very | Signficiantly

***26. Cultivating connections with district leaders and other school leaders**

Not at all | Very little | Somewhat | Very | Signficiantly

***27. Collecting student testing data and analyzing results**

Not at all | Very little | Somewhat | Very | Signficiantly

***28. Helping staff members to reflect on the impact of instructional practices on student learning**

Not at all | Very little | Somewhat | Very | Signficiantly

***29. Demonstrating high expectations for student behavior**

Not at all | Very little | Somewhat | Very | Signficiantly

***30. Assisting in the development of locally-developed assessments and other test measures for use in teacher evaluations**

Not at all | Very little | Somewhat | Very | Signficiantly

***31. Completing administrative paperwork**

Not at all | Very little | Somewhat | Very | Signficiantly

***32. Collaborating with staff during student data collection and analysis**

Not at all | Very little | Somewhat | Very | Signficiantly

***33. Building community support for school's improvement initiatives**

Not at all | Very little | Somewhat | Very | Signficiantly

***34. Leading discussions about classroom practices**

Not at all | Very little | Somewhat | Very | Signficiantly

***35. Encouraging staff to assume responsibility for achieving the school's vision and goals**

Not at all | Very little | Somewhat | Very | Signficiantly

2013 Indiana High School Assistant Principal Survey

***36. Using annual performance evaluation to designate each certified employee as highly effective, effective, improvement necessary, or ineffective**

◯ Not at all ◯ Very little ◯ Somewhat ◯ Very ◯ Signficiantly

***37. Coordinating use of school facilities**

◯ Not at all ◯ Very little ◯ Somewhat ◯ Very ◯ Signficiantly

***38. Coordinating student clubs and activities**

◯ Not at all ◯ Very little ◯ Somewhat ◯ Very ◯ Signficiantly

***39. Buffering teachers from distractions to their teaching**

◯ Not at all ◯ Very little ◯ Somewhat ◯ Very ◯ Signficiantly

***40. Engaging parents in the school's improvement efforts**

◯ Not at all ◯ Very little ◯ Somewhat ◯ Very ◯ Signficiantly

2013 Indiana High School Assistant Principal Survey

PART II: The following questions are designed to provide a profile of how your work as a high school assistant principal has been impacted by the implementation of PL-90 (Indiana's New High-Stakes Teacher Evaluation law – sometimes called SEA 1).

***41. Were you in the same high school assistant principal position for at least the last 2 years?**

- ◯ Yes
- ◯ No

2013 Indiana High School Assistant Principal Survey

***42. Did your school implement teacher evaluations based upon PL-90 during the 2012-13 school year?**

- ◯ Yes
- ◯ No

For this section, consider the impact of the implementation of PL-90 on your work as a high school assistant principal using the same 40 leadership practices and actions. For each statement in this section, please compare your level of involvement in the action DURING 2012-13 to your level of involvement in the action BEFORE 2012-13.

Because of the new teacher evaluation law, to what extent did your involvement change in each of these areas during the 2012-13 school year?

***43. Disciplining students who violate school rules**

Significantly Less Involved	Somewhat Less Involved	No Change in Involvement	Somewhat More Involved	Significantly More Involved
◯	◯	◯	◯	◯

***44. Conducting lesson-length classroom observations**

Significantly Less Involved	Somewhat Less Involved	No Change in Involvement	Somewhat More Involved	Significantly More Involved
◯	◯	◯	◯	◯

***45. Conducting short classroom observations (less than 15 minutes)**

Significantly Less Involved	Somewhat Less Involved	No Change in Involvement	Somewhat More Involved	Significantly More Involved
◯	◯	◯	◯	◯

***46. Engaging teachers in decision-making that affects their instructional work**

Significantly Less Involved	Somewhat Less Involved	No Change in Involvement	Somewhat More Involved	Significantly More Involved
◯	◯	◯	◯	◯

***47. Recognizing the accomplishments of individual staff members**

Significantly Less Involved	Somewhat Less Involved	No Change in Involvement	Somewhat More Involved	Significantly More Involved
◯	◯	◯	◯	◯

***48. Communicating to all stakeholders a sense of purpose and vision for the school**

Significantly Less Involved	Somewhat Less Involved	No Change in Involvement	Somewhat More Involved	Significantly More Involved
◯	◯	◯	◯	◯

***49. Calculating student achievement and growth data for individual teachers**

Significantly Less Involved	Somewhat Less Involved	No Change in Involvement	Somewhat More Involved	Significantly More Involved
◯	◯	◯	◯	◯

***50. Supervising students during the school day (e.g. passing periods, lunch)**

Significantly Less Involved	Somewhat Less Involved	No Change in Involvement	Somewhat More Involved	Significantly More Involved
◯	◯	◯	◯	◯

***51. Supervising students after school hours (e.g. extracurricular activities, dances)**

Significantly Less Involved	Somewhat Less Involved	No Change in Involvement	Somewhat More Involved	Significantly More Involved

***52. Creating a welcoming environment for parents and community members**

Significantly Less Involved	Somewhat Less Involved	No Change in Involvement	Somewhat More Involved	Significantly More Involved

***53. Responding to individual staff member's expertise and needs**

Significantly Less Involved	Somewhat Less Involved	No Change in Involvement	Somewhat More Involved	Significantly More Involved

***54. Clarifying the relationship between the school's vision and improvement initiatives**

Significantly Less Involved	Somewhat Less Involved	No Change in Involvement	Somewhat More Involved	Significantly More Involved

***55. Developing methods to measure student growth for certificated employees**

Significantly Less Involved	Somewhat Less Involved	No Change in Involvement	Somewhat More Involved	Significantly More Involved

***56. Monitoring student attendance and enforcing school attendance policies**

Significantly Less Involved	Somewhat Less Involved	No Change in Involvement	Somewhat More Involved	Significantly More Involved

***57. Providing constructive feedback to teachers after observations**

Significantly Less Involved	Somewhat Less Involved	No Change in Involvement	Somewhat More Involved	Significantly More Involved

***58. Developing and maintaining connections with state policymakers**

Significantly Less Involved	Somewhat Less Involved	No Change in Involvement	Somewhat More Involved	Significantly More Involved

***59. Making explicit reference to school goals when making decisions**

Significantly Less Involved	Somewhat Less Involved	No Change in Involvement	Somewhat More Involved	Significantly More Involved

***60. Dealing with conflicts that arise among teacher-student-parent-support staff**

Significantly Less Involved	Somewhat Less Involved	No Change in Involvement	Somewhat More Involved	Significantly More Involved

***61. Participating in special education conferences**

○ Significantly Less Involved ○ Somewhat Less Involved ○ No Change in Involvement ○ Somewhat More Involved ○ Significantly More Involved

***62. Encouraging staff to use data in their work**

○ Significantly Less Involved ○ Somewhat Less Involved ○ No Change in Involvement ○ Somewhat More Involved ○ Significantly More Involved

***63. Providing staff individual support to improve their teaching practices**

○ Significantly Less Involved ○ Somewhat Less Involved ○ No Change in Involvement ○ Somewhat More Involved ○ Significantly More Involved

***64. Encouraging staff to pursue their own goals for professional learning**

○ Significantly Less Involved ○ Somewhat Less Involved ○ No Change in Involvement ○ Somewhat More Involved ○ Significantly More Involved

***65. Demonstrating high expectations for staff's work with all students**

○ Significantly Less Involved ○ Somewhat Less Involved ○ No Change in Involvement ○ Somewhat More Involved ○ Significantly More Involved

***66. Organizing and administering standardized tests (e.g. Core 40 ECA, AP, PSAT)**

○ Significantly Less Involved ○ Somewhat Less Involved ○ No Change in Involvement ○ Somewhat More Involved ○ Significantly More Involved

***67. Participating in the hiring of new staff members**

○ Significantly Less Involved ○ Somewhat Less Involved ○ No Change in Involvement ○ Somewhat More Involved ○ Significantly More Involved

***68. Cultivating connections with district leaders and other school leaders**

○ Significantly Less Involved ○ Somewhat Less Involved ○ No Change in Involvement ○ Somewhat More Involved ○ Significantly More Involved

***69. Collecting student testing data and analyzing results**

○ Significantly Less Involved ○ Somewhat Less Involved ○ No Change in Involvement ○ Somewhat More Involved ○ Significantly More Involved

***70. Helping staff members to reflect on the impact of instructional practices on student learning**

○ Significantly Less Involved ○ Somewhat Less Involved ○ No Change in Involvement ○ Somewhat More Involved ○ Significantly More Involved

***71. Demonstrating high expectations for student behavior**

◯ Significantly Less Involved ◯ Somewhat Less Involved ◯ No Change in Involvement ◯ Somewhat More Involved ◯ Significantly More Involved

***72. Assisting in the development of locally-developed assessments and other test measures for use in teacher evaluations**

◯ Significantly Less Involved ◯ Somewhat Less Involved ◯ No Change in Involvement ◯ Somewhat More Involved ◯ Significantly More Involved

***73. Completing administrative paperwork**

◯ Significantly Less Involved ◯ Somewhat Less Involved ◯ No Change in Involvement ◯ Somewhat More Involved ◯ Significantly More Involved

***74. Collaborating with staff during student data collection and analysis**

◯ Significantly Less Involved ◯ Somewhat Less Involved ◯ No Change in Involvement ◯ Somewhat More Involved ◯ Significantly More Involved

***75. Building community support for school's improvement initiatives**

◯ Significantly Less Involved ◯ Somewhat Less Involved ◯ No Change in Involvement ◯ Somewhat More Involved ◯ Significantly More Involved

***76. Leading discussions about classroom practices**

◯ Significantly Less Involved ◯ Somewhat Less Involved ◯ No Change in Involvement ◯ Somewhat More Involved ◯ Significantly More Involved

***77. Encouraging staff to assume responsibility for achieving the school's vision and goals**

◯ Significantly Less Involved ◯ Somewhat Less Involved ◯ No Change in Involvement ◯ Somewhat More Involved ◯ Significantly More Involved

***78. Using annual performance evaluation to designate each certified employee as highly effective, effective, improvement necessary, or ineffective**

◯ Significantly Less Involved ◯ Somewhat Less Involved ◯ No Change in Involvement ◯ Somewhat More Involved ◯ Significantly More Involved

***79. Coordinating use of school facilities**

◯ Significantly Less Involved ◯ Somewhat Less Involved ◯ No Change in Involvement ◯ Somewhat More Involved ◯ Significantly More Involved

2013 Indiana High School Assistant Principal Survey

***80. Coordinating student clubs and activities**

Significantly Less Involved	Somewhat Less Involved	No Change in Involvement	Somewhat More Involved	Significantly More Involved
◯	◯	◯	◯	◯

***81. Buffering teachers from distractions to their teaching**

Significantly Less Involved	Somewhat Less Involved	No Change in Involvement	Somewhat More Involved	Significantly More Involved
◯	◯	◯	◯	◯

***82. Engaging parents in the school's improvement efforts**

Significantly Less Involved	Somewhat Less Involved	No Change in Involvement	Somewhat More Involved	Significantly More Involved
◯	◯	◯	◯	◯

83. Briefly describe the greatest impact that PL-90 had on your work as a high school assistant principal during the 2012-13 school year.

84. How has the implementation of PL-90 (Indiana's new high-stakes educator evaluation law) affected your job satisfaction as a high school assistant principal?

- ◯ Significantly Less Satisfied
- ◯ Somewhat Less Satisfied
- ◯ No Change in Satisfaction
- ◯ Somewhat More Satisfied
- ◯ Significantly More Satisfied

2013 Indiana High School Assistant Principal Survey

PART III: Please provide the following information about yourself.

85. What is your gender?

- ◯ Female
- ◯ Male

86. What is your ethnicity?

- ◯ American Indian
- ◯ Asian
- ◯ Black
- ◯ Hispanic
- ◯ Native Hawaiian or Other Pacific Islander
- ◯ Multiracial
- ◯ White

87. Including 2012-13, how many years have you been in your current assistant principal position?

_____

88. Including 2012-13, how many years of experience do you have as a school administrator?

_____

89. How many years of classroom teaching experience do you have?

_____

90. What is the highest level of education that you have obtained?

- ◯ Bachelor's degree
- ◯ Master's degree
- ◯ Professional Degree (Ed.S.)
- ◯ Doctorate (Ed.D./Ph.D.)

2013 Indiana High School Assistant Principal Survey

Please Describe Your High School.

91. What is your high school's total student enrollment?

- ◯ Less than 500
- ◯ 501-1,000
- ◯ 1,0001-1,500
- ◯ 1,501-2,000
- ◯ over 2,000

92. Which of the following best describes your high school's location?

- ◯ Large city
- ◯ Midsize city
- ◯ Urban fringe of large city
- ◯ Urban fringe of midsize city
- ◯ Large town
- ◯ Small town
- ◯ Rural

93. Which of the following best describes your high school?

- ◯ Charter School
- ◯ Non-Public/Private
- ◯ State Takeover
- ◯ Traditional Public

94. What grade was your high school assigned by the Indiana Department of Education in the fall of 2012?

- ◯ A
- ◯ B
- ◯ C
- ◯ D
- ◯ F
- ◯ Don't know

2013 Indiana High School Assistant Principal Survey

95. Including yourself, how many assistant principals does your high school have?

Please describe your high school's implementation or planned implementation of PL-90.

96. When did your school implement PL-90 (Indiana's new high-stakes educator evaluation law)? Or, when does your school plan to implement PL-90?

- ◯ 2011-12
- ◯ 2012-13
- ◯ 2013-14
- ◯ 2014-15
- ◯ 2015-16
- ◯ After 2015-16
- ◯ Don't know

97. Which evaluation model did you use or do you plan to use?

- ◯ RISE
- ◯ Corporation-modified RISE
- ◯ TAP (System for Teacher and Student Advancement)
- ◯ PAR (Peer Assistance and Review Teacher Evaluation System)
- ◯ Corporation-Developed Evaluation Plan
- ◯ Don't know

Other (please specify)

98. Who was/will be responsible for conducting evaluations in your school? (Select all that apply)

- [ ] Principal
- [ ] Assistant Principal(s)
- [ ] Dean(s)
- [ ] Department Head(s)
- [ ] District Office Personnell
- [ ] Master Teacher(s)
- [ ] Outside Vendor(s)
- [ ] Don't know

Other (please specify)

99. How were/will teachers be assigned to evaluators? (Select all that apply)

- [ ] By Department
- [ ] By Evaluator's Content Expertise (e.g. Teaching license subject areas)
- [ ] By Teachers' Years of Teaching Experience
- [ ] By Teachers' Expected Performance Evaluation Score
- [ ] Randomly
- [ ] Don't know

Other (please specify)

100. When is a teacher's pay/raise dependent on his/her teacher evaluation?

- ◯ This Past Year (2012-13)
- ◯ Next Year (2013-14)
- ◯ 2014-15 or Later
- ◯ Don't know

101. For how many teachers were you a primary evaluator in 2012-13?

102. For how many teachers were you a secondary evaluator in 2012-13?

2013 Indiana High School Assistant Principal Survey

PART IV: The following question is designed to gauge your interest in participating in the second phase of this research project. The second phase will consist of interviews with Indiana high school assistant principals to study their work in greater detail. The interviews are intended to develop a greater understanding of the roles, responsibilities, and work of Indiana high school assistant principals and how they may have changed in the current environment of high-stakes accountability for students, schools, and educators. Each selected assistant principal will be asked to participate in two interviews that will last approximately 60-90 minutes.

103. Are you interested in being considered for the interview phase of this study?

- ◯ Yes
- ◯ No

104. Would you like to receive a summary of findings report at the end of this study?

- ◯ Yes
- ◯ No

105. Please complete the following contact information to be included in the random drawing for gift cards, to receive a summary of findings report, and/or to participate in the interview phase of this study.

Name	
High School	
Email	
Phone Number	

Appendix B: Interview Guide

The researcher interviewed six Indiana high school assistant principals who implemented PL-90 during the 2012-13 school year. He conducted and audio-recorded the semi-structured interviews. This interview guide includes initial questions and possible follow-up questions.

First Interview Guide

Initial Question #1: Tell me about yourself and your experiences as an educator.
Possible Follow-up Questions:

- Tell me about your teaching experience (e.g. school(s), years of experience, subjects taught).
- Tell me about your experience as an administrator (e.g. school(s), years of experience)

Initial Question #2: Tell me about the high school where you worked in 2012-13.
Possible Follow-up Questions:

- Describe your student population.
- Describe your high school's size and location.
- Tell me about your school's administrative structure.

Initial Question #3: Tell me about your experiences implementing Indiana's new high-stakes educator evaluation law.
Possible Follow-up Questions:

- What were your roles and responsibilities related to teacher evaluation this past year?
- Which teacher evaluation model did you use? How was that model chosen?
- Tell me about your experience in evaluating a teacher from beginning of the year to end.
- How was teacher evaluation similar to previous years?
- How was teacher evaluation different than previous years?
- Tell me about your initial training for implementing your new evaluation procedures.
- Describe any ongoing training that you have received.
- Tell me about a success story related to the implementation of PL-90.
- Tell me about a challenging experience related to the implementation of PL-90.

Initial Question #4: How did the implementation of the new educator evaluation law affect your work as a high school assistant principal?
Possible Follow-up Questions:

- What roles and responsibilities have expanded because of the new teacher evaluation law?
- What roles and responsibilities have diminished because of the new teacher evaluation law?
- How were the diminished roles and responsibilities redistributed?
- How did you balance the new requirements of the teacher evaluation law with your previous responsibilities?

Initial Question #5: How did the implementation of the new educator evaluation law impact your work as an instructional leader?

Possible Follow-up Questions:

- In what ways, if any, has your instructional leadership role been enhanced by the new teacher evaluation law?
- In what ways, if any, has your instructional leadership role been hindered by the new teacher evaluation law?

Initial Question #6: Now that you have implemented Indiana's high-stakes teacher evaluation law for one year, what are your perceptions, thoughts, and feelings about the law?

Initial Question #7: Is there anything else that you would like to tell me about your work that I have not asked?

Second Interview Guide

Initial Question #1: Tell me about any changes, modifications, adaptions that you made during year 2 of implementation of your new evaluation system.

Possible Follow-up Questions:

- Describe any district or building level changes made.
- Describe any ways that you changed how you did your work – either related to evaluations or to your other work.
- Describe any changes to your roles and responsibilities during year 2.
- How have you leveraged technology to assist your implementation?

Initial Question #2: According to my research thus far, the greatest impacts to the work of high school APs during this implementation were (1) more time observing and collaborating with teachers, (2) more total hours worked, (3) more paper work, (4) less time to work directly with students, and (5) less time working with parents and community members. How well does this summary match your experiences?

Possible Follow-up Questions:

- Which of these does not fit your experiences?
- What were other major impacts on your work?

Initial Question #3: Another area where my research had indicated an increased involvement for high school assistant principals has been working with staff to make instructional improvements. Tell me about your experiences in working with teachers to improve instruction in your building.

Possible Follow-up Questions:

- Tell me about your experiences working with individual teachers.
- Tell me about your experiences working with groups of teachers.
- Tell me about your using data and/or helping teachers use data to make these improvements.
- How have you engaged teachers in decision-making that affects their instructional work from a system perspective?

Initial Question #4: Tell me about your school's vision, goals, and improvement initiatives. How has this evaluation implementation impacted your pursuit of these goals and vision?

Possible Follow-up Questions: • How were school improvement efforts/initiatives affected? • How did you involve staff members, students, parents, & community members in these improvement efforts/initiatives? • How have you recognized staff members?
Initial Question # 5: In the past 2 years have you rated any teachers as "ineffective" or "needs improvement"? If yes, tell me about that experience. **Possible Follow-up Questions:** • Explain the remediation plan process. • How much additional time did this involve?
Initial Question #6: Now that you have implemented Indiana's high-stakes teacher evaluation law for a second year, have your perceptions, thoughts, and feelings about the law changed?
Initial Question #7: Is there anything else that you would like to tell me about your work that I have not asked?

Appendix C: Survey Summary Tables

Table C1 – *Perceived Level of Involvement: Comparing Assistant Principals Implementing PL-90 and Not Implementing PL-90*

	Implementing PL-90 (n = 91)		Not Implementing PL-90 (n = 32)	
Leadership Practice, Action, or Category	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*
PL-90 Requirements	3.895*	.657	3.558	.690
Assisting in the development of locally-developed assessments and other test measures for use in teacher evaluations	2.758	1.205	2.625	1.212
Calculating student achievement and growth data for individual teachers	3.297	1.225	2.844	1.051
Conducting lesson-length classroom observations[a]	4.637	.738	4.406	.756
Conducting short classroom observations (less than 15 minutes)[a]	4.451	.958	4.375	.793
Developing methods to measure student growth for certificated employees	3.165	1.307	2.906	1.201
Providing constructive feedback to teachers after observations[a]	4.516	.721	4.406	.712
Using annual performance evaluation to designate each certified employee as highly effective, effective, improvement necessary, or ineffective	4.440*	.980	3.344	1.428
Traditional Assistant Principal Roles & Responsibilities	3.736	.502	3.849	.469
Collecting student testing data and analyzing results	3.308	1.208	3.625	1.100
Completing administrative paperwork	4.429	.791	4.438	.759
Coordinating student clubs and activities	2.692	1.082	2.875	1.238
Coordinating use of school facilities	2.868	1.318	2.781	1.237
Dealing with conflicts that arise among teacher-student-parent-support staff	4.110	.795	4.500*	.718
Disciplining students who violate school rules	4.242	1.148	4.281	.991
Monitoring student attendance and enforcing school attendance policies	3.956	1.307	4.125	1.129

Organizing and administering standardized tests (e.g. Core 40 ECA, AP, PSAT)	2.890	1.464	3.313	1.533
Participating in special education conferences	3.549	1.232	4.031*	.933
Supervising students after school hours (e.g. extracurricular activities, dances)	4.396	.787	4.031	1.062
Supervising students during the school day (e.g. passing periods, lunch)	4.659	.600	4.344	.902
Total Instructional Leadership	3.741	.559	3.740	.483
Setting Directions	3.819	.618	3.833	.488
Clarifying the relationship between the school's vision and improvement initiatives	3.549	.922	3.438	.801
Communicating to all stakeholders a sense of purpose and vision for the school	3.582	.920	3.438	.878
Demonstrating high expectations for staff's work with all students	4.209	.707	4.375	.609
Demonstrating high expectations for student behavior	4.440	.687	4.594	.665
Encouraging staff to assume responsibility for achieving the school's vision and goals	3.571	.896	3.531	.879
Making explicit reference to school goals when making decisions	3.560	.980	3.625	.833
Developing People	3.727	.666	3.672	.566
Encouraging staff to pursue their own goals for professional learning	3.527	.874	3.563	.840
Helping staff members to reflect on the impact of instructional practices on student learning	3.769	.870	3.719	.683
Leading discussions about classroom practices	3.407	.931	3.344	.937
Providing staff individual support to improve their teaching practices	3.934	.892	3.875	.871
Recognizing the accomplishments of individual staff members	3.659	.872	3.531	.761
Responding to individual staff member's expertise and needs	4.066	.696	4.000	.672
Refining & Aligning the Organization	3.286	.648	3.323	.631
Building community support for school's improvement initiatives	3.088	.931	3.344	1.008
Creating a welcoming environment	4.143	.768	4.281	.851

for parents and community members				
Cultivating connections with district leaders and other school leaders	3.451	1.014	3.500	1.078
Developing and maintaining connections with state policymakers	1.967	.994	1.938	1.045
Engaging parents in the school's improvement efforts	3.022	1.022	3.219	.792
Engaging teachers in decision-making that affects their instructional work	4.044	.829	3.781	.906
Improving the Teaching and Learning Program	4.075	.576	4.076	.530
Buffering teachers from distractions to their teaching	3.670	.920	3.656	.937
Collaborating with staff during student data collection and analysis	3.374	1.071	3.438	.878
Conducting lesson-length classroom observations[a]	4.637	.738	4.406	.756
Conducting short classroom observations (less than 15 minutes)[a]	4.451	.958	4.375	.793
Encouraging staff to use data in their work	3.934	.892	4.188	.738
Participating in the hiring of new staff members	3.945	.959	4.063	.914
Providing constructive feedback to teachers after observations[a]	4.516	.721	4.406	.712

Note. Scale: 1 = Not at all, 2 = Very little, 3 = Somewhat, 4 = Very, and 5 = Significantly. [a]The leadership practice or action is included in PL-90 Requirements and Improving the Teaching and Learning Program. * indicates the difference in means was statistically significant at the .05 level using a t-test.

Table C2 – *Perceived Change in Level of Involvement for Assistant Principals Implementing PL-90 and in the Same Position for at least 2 Years*

Leadership Practice, Action, or Category	Mean	Standard Deviation
PL-90 Requirements	4.107	.469
Assisting in the development of locally-developed assessments and other test measures for use in teacher evaluations	3.463	.636
Calculating student achievement and growth data for individual teachers	3.746	.682

Conducting lesson-length classroom observations[a]	4.493	.726
Conducting short classroom observations (less than 15 minutes)[a]	4.373	.775
Developing methods to measure student growth for certificated employees	3.761	.720
Providing constructive feedback to teachers after observations[a]	4.403	.760
Using annual performance evaluation to designate each certified employee as highly effective, effective, improvement necessary, or ineffective	4.507	.805
Traditional Assistant Principal Roles & Responsibilities	3.157	.278
Collecting student testing data and analyzing results	3.507	.612
Completing administrative paperwork	4.060	.967
Coordinating student clubs and activities	3.045	.367
Coordinating use of school facilities	3.030	.300
Dealing with conflicts that arise among teacher-student-parent-support staff	3.179	.490
Disciplining students who violate school rules	2.925	.559
Monitoring student attendance and enforcing school attendance policies	2.970	.602
Organizing and administering standardized tests (e.g. Core 40 ECA, AP, PSAT)	3.015	.369
Participating in special education conferences	2.970	.602
Supervising students after school hours (e.g. extracurricular activities, dances)	3.104	.431
Supervising students during the school day (e.g. passing periods, lunch)	2.925	.531
Total Instructional Leadership	3.596	.380
Setting Directions	3.433	.511
Clarifying the relationship between the school's vision and improvement initiatives	3.343	.686
Communicating to all stakeholders a sense of purpose and vision for the school	3.448	.803
Demonstrating high expectations for staff's work with all students	3.567	.679
Demonstrating high expectations for student behavior	3.179	.548
Encouraging staff to assume responsibility for achieving the school's vision and goals	3.627	.756
Making explicit reference to school goals when making decisions	3.433	.657
Developing People	3.701	.506
Encouraging staff to pursue their own goals for professional learning	3.612	.673
Helping staff members to reflect on the impact of instructional practices on student learning	3.970	.674
Leading discussions about classroom practices	3.701	.697

Providing staff individual support to improve their teaching practices	3.985	.707
Recognizing the accomplishments of individual staff members	3.433	.783
Responding to individual staff member's expertise and needs	3.507	.637
Refining & Aligning the Organization	3.271	.348
Building community support for school's improvement initiatives	3.239	.630
Creating a welcoming environment for parents and community members	3.075	.401
Cultivating connections with district leaders and other school leaders	3.149	.584
Developing and maintaining connections with state policymakers	3.075	.317
Engaging parents in the school's improvement efforts	3.119	.508
Engaging teachers in decision-making that affects their instructional work	3.970	.758
Improving the Teaching and Learning Program	3.923	.409
Buffering teachers from distractions to their teaching	3.254	.532
Collaborating with staff during student data collection and analysis	3.821	.695
Conducting lesson-length classroom observations[a]	4.493	.726
Conducting short classroom observations (less than 15 minutes)[a]	4.373	.775
Encouraging staff to use data in their work	4.030	.717
Participating in the hiring of new staff members	3.090	.452
Providing constructive feedback to teachers after observations[a]	4.403	.760

Note. N = 67. Scale: 1 = Significantly Less Involved, 2 = Somewhat Less Involved, 3 = No Change in Involvement, 4 = Somewhat More Involved, and 5 = Significantly More Involved. [a]The leadership practice or action is included in PL-90 Requirements and Improving the Teaching and Learning Program.

Appendix D: Recruitment Materials

Recruitment Email for Quantitative Phase

To: Indiana High School Assistant Principals
From: Brian Disney, IU Doctoral Candidate
RE: Research on Indiana High School AP's and Teacher Evaluations

You are invited to participate in a dissertation research study of the work of Indiana high school assistant principals and the impact of PL-90 (Indiana's new high-stakes educator evaluation law) on their work.

You were selected as a possible subject because you are listed on your high school's website as an assistant, associate, or vice principal**.** The study is being conducted by Brian Disney (doctoral candidate) and Dr. Gary Crow (professor) at the IU School of Education.

If you agree to be in the study, you will be asked to complete a survey about your work experiences as a high school assistant principal. You will also be asked for demographic data about yourself and your school for data analysis purposes. The survey should take approximately 10-15 minutes to complete.

Efforts will be made to keep your personal information confidential. Your identity will be held in confidence in reports in which the study may be published and databases in which results may be stored. Your responses to survey questions will be kept confidential. At no time will your actual identity be revealed. The data you provide will be used for my dissertation and may be used as the basis for articles or presentations in the future. I won't use your name or information that would identify you in any publications or presentations.

As a way of saying thanks, all participants who complete the survey will be eligible to be entered into a random drawing for one of four $50 gift cards. All participants can also request a copy of the summary of findings at the end of the study.

For questions about the study, please contact Brian Disney Phone (317) 550-6089 Email: brdisney@indiana.edu. You may also contact the faculty member supervising this work: Gary Crow, Professor of Education, Indiana University-Bloomington, Phone (812) 856-8192 Email: gcrow@indiana.edu. For questions about your rights as a research participant or to discuss problems, complaints or concerns about a research study, or to obtain information, or offer input, contact the IU Human Subjects Office at (812) 856-4242 or (800) 696-2949.

Your participation in this study is completely voluntary, and you may refuse to participate or stop participating at any time without penalty or loss of benefit to which you may otherwise be entitled. You may withdraw by informing the researcher that you no longer wish to participate (no questions will be asked).

We ask that you read this form and ask any questions you may have before agreeing to be in the study. If you agree to participate, please click on this link to begin the survey (https://www.surveymonkey.com/s/NZ7R959).

Thank you,
Brian Disney, Doctoral Candidate, Indiana University

Study Information Sheet for Qualitative Phase

Indiana High School Assistant Principals and High-Stakes Teacher Evaluations

You are invited to participate in a research study of the work of Indiana high school assistant principals. You were selected as a possible subject because you completed the online survey and may be able to provide more in-depth information about the work of Indiana high school assistant principals**.** We ask that you read this form and ask any questions you may have before agreeing to be in the study.

The study is being conducted by Brian Disney (doctoral student) and Dr. Gary Crow (professor) at the IU School of Education.

STUDY PURPOSE: The purpose of this study is to develop a better understanding of the work of Indiana high school assistant principals in the current environment of high-stakes accountability for students, schools, and educators.

PROCEDURES FOR THE STUDY: If you decide to participate in the interview phase of this project, you will be asked to participate in two interviews. You will be asked several questions about your work as a high school assistant principal. The interviews are intended to develop a greater understanding of the roles, responsibilities, and work of Indiana high school assistant principals and how they may have changed in the current environment of high-stakes accountability for students, schools, and educators. Each interview will last approximately 60-90 minutes.

CONFIDENTIALITY: Efforts will be made to keep your personal information confidential. We cannot guarantee absolute confidentiality. Your personal information may be disclosed if required by law. Your identity will be held in confidence in reports in which the study may be published and databases in which results may be stored.

Your responses to interview questions will be kept confidential. At no time will your actual identity be revealed. You will be assigned a random numerical code. The recordings of the interviews will be destroyed when my dissertation has been accepted. The transcript, without your name, will be kept until the research is complete. The key code linking your name with your number will be kept in a locked file cabinet in a locked office, and no one else will have access to it. It will be destroyed when my dissertation has been accepted. The data you give me will be used for my dissertation and may be used as the basis for articles or presentations in the future. I won't use your name or information that would identify you in any publications or presentations.

Organizations that may inspect and/or copy your research records for quality assurance and data analysis include groups such as the study investigator and his/her research associates, the Indiana University Institutional Review Board or its designees, and (as allowed by law) state or federal agencies.

PAYMENT: You will not receive payment for taking part in the interviews.

CONTACTS FOR QUESTIONS OR PROBLEMS: For questions about the study, please contact Brian Disney Phone (317) 550-6089 Email: brdisney@indiana.edu. You may also contact the faculty member supervising this work: Gary Crow, Professor of Education, Indiana University-Bloomington, Phone (812) 856-8192 Email: gcrow@indiana.edu

For questions about your rights as a research participant or to discuss problems, complaints or concerns about a research study, or to obtain information, or offer input, contact the IU Human Subjects Office at (812) 856-4242 or (800) 696-2949.

VOLUNTARY NATURE OF STUDY: Your participation in this study is completely voluntary, and you may refuse to participate or stop participating at any time without penalty or loss of benefit to which you may otherwise be entitled. You may withdraw by informing the researcher that you no longer wish to participate (no questions will be asked). You may also skip any question during the interview, but continue to participate in the rest of the study.

References

Aaronson, D., Barrow, L., & Sander, W. (2007). Teachers and student achievement in the Chicago public high schools. *Journal of Labor Economics, 25*(1), 95-135.

Armstrong, D. (2009). *Administrative passages: Navigating the transition from teacher to assistant principal*. New York, NY: Springer.

Armstrong, D. (2010). Rites of passage: Coercion, compliance, and complicity in the socialization of new vice-principals. *The Teachers College Record, 112*(3), 685-722.

Barnett, B. G., Shoho, A. R., & Oleszewski, A. M. (2012). The job realities of beginning and experienced assistant principals. *Leadership and Policy in Schools, 11*(1), 92-128.

Bolman, L. G., & Deal, T. E. (1992). Leading and managing: Effects of context, culture, and gender. *Educational Administration Quarterly, 28*(3), 314-329.

Bradburn, N. M., Sudman, S., & Wansink, B. (2004). *Asking questions: The definitive guide to questionnaire design--for market research, political polls, and social and health questionnaires* (Rev. ed.). San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Burke, S., & Collins, K. M. (2001). Gender differences in leadership styles and management skills. *Women in Management Review, 16*(5), 244-257.

Celikten, M. (2001). The instructional leadership tasks of high school assistant principals. *Journal of Educational Administration, 39*(1), 67-76.

Coleman, J. S., Campbell, E., Hobson, C., McPartland, J., Mood, A., Weinfield, F., & York, R. (1966). *Equality of opportunity*. Washington, DC: US Government Printing Office.

Cooper, B. S., Ehrensal, P. A. L., & Bromme, M. (2005). School-level politics and professional development: Traps in evaluating the quality of practicing teachers. *Educational Policy, 19*(1), 112-125.

Cranston, N., Tromans, C., & Reugebrink, M. (2004). Forgotten leaders: What do we know about the deputy principalship in secondary schools? *International Journal of Leadership in Education, 7*(3), 225-242.

Creswell, J. W. (2009). *Research design: Qualitative, quantitative, and mixed method approaches* (3rd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Creswell, J. W., & Miller, D. L. (2000). Determining validity in qualitative inquiry. *Theory into Practice, 39*(3), 124-130.

Creswell, J. W., & Plano Clark, V. L. (2011). *Designing and conducting mixed methods research* (2nd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Crotty, M. (1998). *The foundations of social research: Meaning and perspective in the research process*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Crow, G. M. (2006). Complexity and the beginning principal in the United States: Perspectives on socialization. *Journal of Educational Administration, 44*(4), 310-325.

Crum, K. S., & Sherman, W. H. (2008). Facilitating high achievement: High school principals' reflections on their successful leadership practices. *Journal of Educational Administration, 46*(5), 562-580.

Cuban, L. (1990). Reforming again, again, and again. *Educational Researcher, 19*(1), 3-13.

Danielson, C., & McGreal, T. L. (2000). *Teacher evaluation to enhance professional practice*. Alexandria, VA: ASCD.

Darke, P., Shanks, G., & Broadbent, M. (1998). Successfully completing case study research: Combining rigour, relevance and pragmatism. *Information Systems Journal, 8*(4), 273-289.

Day, C., Sammons, P., Leithwood, K., Hopkins, D., Gu, Q., Brown, E., & Ahtaridou, E. (2011). *Successful school leadership: Linking with learning and achievement*. New York, NY: Open University Press.

Debray, E. (2005). A comprehensive high school and a shift in New York State policy: A study of early implementation. *The High School Journal, 89*(1), 18-45.

Derrington, M. L. (2011). Changes in teacher evaluation: Implications for the principal's work. *The Delta Kappa Gamma Bulletin, 77*(3), 51-54.

Dillman, D. A. (2000). *Mail and internet surveys: The tailored design method* (2nd ed.). New York, NY: John Wiley & Sons, Inc.

Fowler, F. J. (2002). *Survey research methods* (3rd ed. Vol. 1). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Glanz, J. (1994a). Dilemmas of assistant principals in their supervisory role: Reflections of an assistant principal. *Journal of School Leadership, 4*(5), 577-590.

Glanz, J. (1994b). Redefining the roles and responsibilities of assistant principals. *The Clearing House, 67*(5), 283-287.

Goe, L., Bell, C., & Little, O. (2008). *Approaches to evaluating teacher effectiveness: A research synthesis*. Washington, DC: National Comprehensive Center for Teacher

Quality. Retrieved from http://www.wested.org/schoolturnaroundcenter/docs/goe-research-synthesis.pdf

Goe, L., Holdheide, L., & Miller, T. (2011). *A practical guide to designing comprehensive teacher evaluation systems: A tool to assist in the development of teacher evaluation systems*. Washington, DC: National Comprehensive Center for Teacher Quality. Retrieved from http://www.tqsource.org/publications/practicalGuideEvalSystems.pdf

Goldhaber, D. D., & Brewer, D. J. (2000). Does teacher certification matter? High school teacher certification status and student achievement. *Educational Evaluation and Policy Analysis, 22*(2), 129-145.

Grate, S. L. (2005). *A descriptive study of the role of the high school assistant principal in the state of Indiana.* (Unpublished doctoral dissertation). Ball State University, Indiana.

Greenfield, W. D. (1985). Developing an instructional role for the assistant principal. *Education and Urban Society, 18*(1), 85-92.

Hallinger, P. (2003). Leading educational change: Reflections on the practice of instructional and transformational leadership. *Cambridge Journal of Education, 33*(3), 329-352.

Hallinger, P. (2011). A review of three decades of doctoral studies using the principal instructional management rating scale: A lens on methodological progress in educational leadership. *Educational Administration Quarterly, 47*(2), 271-306.

Hanushek, E. A. (1992). The trade-off between child quantity and quality. *Journal of Political Economy, 100*(1), 84-117.

Hart, A. W. (1993). *Principal succession: Establishing leadership in schools*: SUNY Press.

Hausman, C., Nebeker, A., McCreary, J., & Donaldson Jr, G. (2002). The worklife of the assistant principal. *Journal of Educational Administration, 40*(2), 136-157.

Hollway, W., & Jefferson, T. (1997). Eliciting narrative through the in-depth interview. *Qualitative Inquiry, 3*(1), 53-70.

Horng, E., Klasik, D., & Loeb, S. (2010). Principal's time use and school effectiveness. *American Journal of Education, 116*(4), 491-523.

Horng, E., & Loeb, S. (2010). New thinking about instructional leadership. *Phi Delta Kappan, 92*(3), 66-69.

Indiana Department of Education (2010). Indiana content standards for educators: School leader-building level. Retrieved from http://www.doe.in.gov/sites/default/files/educator-effectiveness/school-leader-building-level.pdf.

Indiana Department of Education (2011). Indiana principal effectiveness framework [Draft version]. Retrieved from http://www.doe.in.gov/puttingstudentsfirst/documents/rise_2011-08-03_principal_effectiveness_rubric_final.pdf.

Indiana Department of Education (2012a). *The Indiana evaluation pilot: Mid-year report and recommendations*. Indianapolis, IN. Retrieved from http://www.riseindiana.org/sites/default/files/files/IN_MidYear_FINAL.pdf.

Indiana Department of Education (2012b). *Summer report: Creating a culture of excellence in Indiana schools*. Indianapolis, IN: The New Teacher Project. Retrieved from http://www.riseindiana.org/sites/default/files/files/Summer%20Report.pdf.

Indiana Department of Education (n.d.). RISE Evaluation and Development System. Indianapolis, IN. Retrieved from: http://www.riseindiana.org.

Ivankova, N. V., Creswell, J. W., & Stick, S. L. (2006). Using mixed-methods sequential explanatory design: From theory to practice. *Field Methods, 18*(1), 3-20.

Jacob, B. A., & Lefgren, L. (2008). Can principals identify effective teachers? Evidence on subjective performance evaluation in education. *Journal of Labor Economics, 26*(1), 101-136.

Jang, E. E., McDougall, D. E., Pollon, D., Herbert, M., & Russell, P. (2008). Integrative mixed methods data analytic strategies in research on school success in challenging circumstances. *Journal of mixed methods research, 2*(3), 221-247.

Johnson, R. B., & Onwuegbuzie, A. J. (2004). Mixed methods research: A research paradigm whose time has come. *Educational Researcher, 33*(7), 14-26.

Johnson, R. B., Onwuegbuzie, A. J., & Turner, L. A. (2007). Toward a definition of mixed methods research. *Journal of Mixed Methods Research, 1*(2), 112-133.

Kane, T., Staiger, D., McCaffrey, D., Cantrell, S., Archer, J., Bugayar, S., . . . Parker, D. (2012). *Gathering feedback for teaching: Combining high-quality observations with student surveys and achievement gains*. Seattle, WA: Bill & Melinda Gates Foundation.

Kimball, S. M., & Milanowski, A. (2009). Examining teacher evaluation validity and leadership decision making within a standards-based evaluation system. *Educational Administration Quarterly, 45*(1), 34-70.

Knapp, M. S., Copland, M. A., Honig, M. I., Plecki, M. L., & Portin, B. S. (2010). *Learning-focused leadership and leadership support: Meaning and practice in urban systems*. Seattle, WA: Center for the Study of Teaching and Policy– University of Washington.

Kwan, P. (2009). The vice-principal experience as a preparation for the principalship. *Journal of Educational Administration, 47*(2), 191-205.

Larson, C. L. (1997). Is the land of oz an alien nation?: A sociopolitical study of community conflict. *Educational Administration Quarterly, 33*(3), 312-350.

Lee, J. C.-K., Kwan, P., & Walker, A. (2009). Vice-principalship: Their responsibility roles and career aspirations. *International Journal of Leadership in Education, 12*(2), 187-207.

Leithwood, K. (1992). The move toward transformational leadership. *Educational leadership, 49*(5), 8-12.

Leithwood, K. (2007). What we know about educational leadership. In J. M. Burger, C. Webber & P. Klinck (Eds.), *Intelligent leadership*. New York, NY: Springer.

Leithwood, K. (2012). *The Ontario leadership framework 2012 with a discussion of the research foundations*. Toronto, ON: The Institute for Education Leadership.

Leithwood, K., Day, C., Sammons, P., Hopkins, D., & Harris, A. (2006). *Successful school leadership: What it is and how it influences pupil learning*. (Report No. 1844788229). London, England: DfES Publications.

Leithwood, K., Harris, A., & Hopkins, D. (2008). Seven strong claims about successful school leadership. *School Leadership and Management, 28*(1), 27-42.

Leithwood, K., & Riehl, C. (2005). What do we already know about educational leadership. In W. A. Firestone & C. Riehl (Eds.), *A new agenda for research in educational leadership* (pp. 12-27). New York, NY: Teachers College Press.

Leithwood, K., & Seashore-Louis, K. (2012). *Linking leadership to student learning*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Loder, T. L., & Spillane, J. P. (2005). Is a principal still a teacher?: US women administrators' accounts of role conflict and role discontinuity. *School Leadership & Management, 25*(3), 263-279.

Looney, J. (2011). Developing high-quality teachers: Teacher evaluation for improvement. *European Journal of Education, 46*(4), 440-455.

Marshall, C., & Hooley, R. M. (2006). *The assistant principal: Leadership choices and challenges*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Corwin Press.

Marshall, C., & Rossman, G. B. (2010). *Designing qualitative research* (5th ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Matthews, L. J., & Crow, G. M. (2010). *The principalship: New roles in a professional learning community*. Boston, MA: Allyn & Bacon.

Merriam, S. B. (2009). *Qualitative research: A guide to design and implementation*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Mertz, N. T. (2006). The organizational socialization of assistant principals. *Journal of School Leadership, 16*(6), 644-675.

Mertz, N. T., & McNeely, S. R. (1998). Women on the job: A study of female high school principals. *Educational Administration Quarterly, 34*(2), 196-222.

Milanowski, A. (2004). The relationship between teacher performance evaluation scores and student achievement: Evidence from Cincinnati. *Peabody Journal of Education, 79*(4), 33-53.

National Council on Teacher Quality (2011). State of the states: Trends and early lessons on teacher evaluation and effectiveness policies. Retrieved from http://www.nctq.org/p/publications/docs/nctq_stateOfTheStates.pdf.

National Institute for Excellence in Teaching (2014). TAP: The System for Teacher and Student Advancement. Santa Monica, CA. Retrieved from: http://www.talentedteachers.org.

Nixon, A., Packard, A., & Douvanis, B. (2010). Non-renewal of probationary teachers: Negative retention. *Education, 131*(1), 43-52.

Odden, A. (2004). Lessons learned about standards-based teacher evaluation systems. *Peabody Journal of Education, 79*(4), 126-137.

Oleszewski, A. M., Shoho, A., & Barnett, B. (2012). The development of assistant principals: A literature review. *Journal of Educational Administration, 50*(3), 264-286.

Painter, S. R. (2000). Principals' efficacy beliefs about teacher evaluation. *Journal of Educational Administration, 38*(4), 368-378.

Pepper, M. J., Burns, S. F., & Springer, M. G. (2012). *Educator evaluation in Tennessee: Preliminary findings from the 2012 first to the top survey*. Nashville, TN: Tennessee Consortium on Research, Evaluation, and Development. Retrieved from http://www.tnconsortium.org/data/files/gallery/ContentGallery/Educator_Evaluation_in_Tennessee_Preliminary_Findings_from_the_2012_First_to_the_Top_Survey.pdf

Peterson, K. (2004). Research on school teacher evaluation. *NASSP Bulletin, 88*(639), 60-79.

Robinson, V. M. J., Lloyd, C. A., & Rowe, K. J. (2008). The impact of leadership on student outcomes: An analysis of the differential effects of leadership types. *Educational Administration Quarterly, 44*(5), 635-674.

Rusch, E. A., & Marshall, C. (2006). Gender filters and leadership: Plotting a course to equity. *International Journal of Leadership in Education, 9*(3), 229-250.

Sartain, L., Stoelinga, S. R., & Krone, E. (2010). *Rethinking teacher evaluation: Findings from the first year of the excellence in teaching project in Chicago Public Schools*. Retrieved from http://ccsr.uchicago.edu/publications/Teacher%20Eval%20Final.pdf

Scott, V. M. (2011). *An examination of expected versus actual tasks of public school secondary assistant principals throughout Indiana.* (Doctoral dissertation). Retrieved from https://cardinalscholar.bsu.edu.

Shipps, D., & White, M. (2009). A new politics of the principalship? Accountability-driven change in New York City. *Peabody Journal of Education, 84*(3), 350-373.

Smith, J. A., & Osborn, M. (2003). Interpretative phenomenological analysis. In J. A. Smith (Ed.), *Qualitative psychology: A practical guide to research methods* (2nd ed., pp. 53-80). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Strong, M., Gargani, J., & Hacifazlioğlu, Ö. (2011). Do we know a successful teacher when we see one? Experiments in the identification of effective teachers. *Journal of Teacher Education, 62*(4), 367-382.

Sun, A. (2012). Sharing instructional leadership as assistant principals in an accountability-oriented environment. In A. Shoho, B. Barnett & A. Tooms (Eds.),

Examing the Assistant Principalship: New Puzzles and Perennial Challenges for the 21st Century (pp. 153-180). Charlotte, NC: Information Age Publishing, Inc.

Teddlie, C., & Tashakkori, A. (2009). *Foundations of mixed methods research: Integrating quantitative and qualitative approaches in the social and behavioral sciences*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Teddlie, C., & Yu, F. (2007). Mixed methods sampling. *Journal of Mixed Methods Research, 1*(1), 77-100.

Tennessee Department of Education (2012, July). *Teacher evaluation in Tennessee: A report on year 1 implementation*. Nashville, TN. Retrieved from http://www.tn.gov/education/doc/yr_1_tchr_eval_rpt.pdf.

Tucker, P. D. (1997). Lake Wobegon: Where all teachers are competent (or, have we come to terms with the problem of incompetent teachers?). *Journal of Personnel Evaluation in Education, 11*(2), 103-126.

Tuytens, M., & Devos, G. (2011). Stimulating professional learning through teacher evaluation: An impossible task for the school leader? *Teaching and Teacher Education, 27*(5), 891-899.

Tyack, D. (1991). Public school reform: Policy talk and institutional practice. *American Journal of Education, 100*(1), 1-19.

Valentine, J. W., & Prater, M. (2011). Instructional, transformational, and managerial leadership and student achievement: High school principals make a difference. *NASSP Bulletin, 95*(1), 5-30.

Walsham, G. (1995). Interpretive case studies in IS research: Nature and method. *European Journal of Information Systems, 4*(2), 74-81.

Waters, J. T., Marzano, R. J., & McNulty, B. (2004a). Leadership that Sparks Learning. *Educational leadership, 61*(7), 48-51.

Waters, J. T., Marzano, R. J., & McNulty, B. (2004b). McREL's balanced leadership framework: Developing the science of educational leadership. *ERS Spectrum, 22*(1), 1-14.

Webb, R. G. (1995). The changing role of the primary school deputy headteacher. *School Organization, 15*(1), 53-64.

Weiss, R. S. (1995). *Learning from strangers: The art and method of qualitative interview studies*. New York: Free Press.

Weller, L. D., & Weller, S. J. (2002). *The assistant principal: Essentials for effective school leadership*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Corwin Press, Inc.

Whiteman, R. S., Shi, D., & Plucker, J. A. (2011). *Revamping the teacher evaluation process* (Volume 9, Number 4). Bloomington, IN: Center for Evaluation and Education Policy. Retrieved from http://www.ceep.indiana.edu/projects/PDF/PB_V9N4_2011_EPB.pdf

Wong, P. M. (2009). A conceptual framework for understanding the working relationship between school principals and vice-principals. *School Leadership & Management, 29*(2), 157-179.

Brian R. Disney

Education: Indiana University, Ed.D. in Educational Leadership, December 2014
IUPUI, Administrative Licensure Program, May 2009.
IUPUI, Master's Degree in School Counseling, May 2003.
Butler University, Bachelor of Science in Secondary Mathematics Education, Cum Laude, May 1993.
Danville (IN) Community High School, Summa Cum Laude, May 1989.

Educator Experience:

2013-present: Mooresville High School – Principal

2011-2013: Franklin Central High School – Assistant Principal

2005-2011: Brownsburg High School – Teacher and Coach

- *Courses Taught:* Algebra I, Probability & Statistics, Discrete Math, Geometry, and Dual Credit Calculus and Finite Math
- *Coaching:* Girls' Basketball - Varsity (2 yrs)

2002-2005: Zionsville Community High School – Guidance and Coach

- *Director of Guidance (1 year)* and *Guidance Counselor (2 years)*
- *Coaching:* Girls' Basketball -Varsity Assistant (2 yrs), JV (1 yr)

2000-02: Jennings County High School and Jennings County Middle School – Teacher and Coach

- *Courses Taught:* Integrated Chemistry-Physics, General Science Fundamentals, Chemistry I, and Seventh-Grade Science
- *Coaching:* Boys' Basketball JV Coach, Boys' Track and Field Assistant

1997-2000: Culver Community Junior/Senior High School – Teacher and Coach

- *Courses Taught:* Algebra II, Precalculus, Calculus, AP Calculus, Basic Math, and ISTEP Remediation
- *Coaching:* Boys' Basketball - Varsity (2 yrs), Varsity Assistant (1 yr), Boys' and Girls' Cross Country Varsity (1 yr), Boys' Track Varsity (2 yrs)

1993-1997: Decatur Central High School – Teacher and Coach

- *Courses Taught:* Problem Solving, Introductory Algebra, Algebra I, Geometry, and General Math.
- *Coaching:* Boys' Basketball (3 yrs JV & 1 yr Assistant Freshmen, Girls' Track Varsity (2 yrs), Boys' Track Assistant (2 yrs), Boys' Cross Country Varsity (1 yr)

Professional Organizations:

- Indiana Association of School Principals
- Indiana University School Administrators Association
- ASCD
- Phi Delta Kappa